The Outlook

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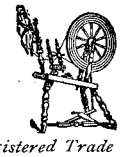

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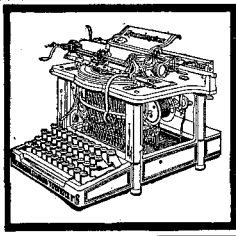

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The Outlook

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Judge Jackson's Injunction

The overshadowing event in the miners' strike last week—the tenth week of the strike—was the decision rendered by Judge Jackson of the United States District Court at Parkersburg, West Virginia, in sentencing six trades-unionists to jail for violating his injunction order of June 19. The case is altogether exceptional because the sentenced unionists are not apparently charged with violations of law, nor even with inciting others to violations of law, but merely with inciting contented workmen to join in the strike, in violation of an order issued by the court. The following extracts indicate the temper and purport of the decision:

> While I recognize the right of all laborers to combine for the purpose of protecting all their lawful rights, I do not recognize the right of laborers to conspire together to compel employés who are not dissatisfied with their work in the mines to lay down their picks and shovels and to quit their work without a just or proper reason therefor, merely to gratify a professional set of agitators, organizers, and walking delegates, who roam all over the country as agents for some combination, who are vampires that live and fatten on the honest labor of the coal miners of the country, and who are busybodies creating dissatisfaction among a class of people who are quiet and well disposed, and who do not want to be disturbed by the unceasing agitation of this class of people.
>
> The right of a citizen to labor for wages he is satisfied with is a right protected by law, and he is entitled to the same protection as free speech, and should be better protected than the abuse of free speech, in which the organizers and agitators indulge in trying to produce strikes.

In case it shall appear that the sentenced unionists made threats against miners not joining in the strike, or incited others to maltreat them, or greeted them with insults, the public judgment of this decision will be sensibly modified—for all such abuses of free speech are violations of law—but at present the "unjudicial" character of the language used by Judge Jackson is the subject of almost universal comment. To denounce trades-union leaders as "vampires" who "live and fatten on honest labor" recalls the rhetoric of the least responsible of labor agitators whom Judge Jackson would imprison for inciting class hatred. Mr. Mitchell's comment on the decision, which has been published in papers not generally friendly to the trades-unions, reads in part as follows:

> None of the defendants in this injunction case nor our speakers have violated the law. They were counseling miners on their own grounds. They were persuading them to remain out until our demands for a living wage have been granted, and were not intimidating them at all.
>
> The scope of Judge Jackson's decision can hardly be realized by those not familiar with the facts. It forbids men to walk on the highways, to talk to non-union men, or to persuade them to strike. It takes from the members of the United Mine Workers the rights all citizens of the United States are supposed to enjoy. Such decisions tend to destroy the confidence of the working people in the impartiality of the courts.
>
> We shall appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States, and shall immediately ask President Roosevelt to interfere before this outrageous decision can be put in force.

The appeal to President Roosevelt, it may be said, will not be made if the imprisoned unionists are set free by the *habeas corpus* proceedings already begun before the higher courts. The officers of the union express confidence that these proceedings will be successful, but it needs to be recalled that the higher courts may not be able to overrule a sentence which they deplore, as punishments for the violation of injunctions have already rested largely upon the discretion of the court issuing them. In case the present sentences are sustained, it will give new life to the demand, already strong in Congress, that the right of Federal

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judges to punish for contempt of court without jury will be limited to offenses committed in the court's presence.

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Wages of Chicago Street Car Employés Raised

The motormen and conductors in the employ of the Chicago City Railway Company, operating in the South Division of Chicago, are to receive a substantial increase in wages beginning August 1. The rate of pay hitherto prevailing was twenty-one cents an hour. The new rate is twenty-four cents an hour. Until recently unions of street-car men have not been permitted by the employing corporations of Chicago, but a few weeks ago the men succeeded in perfecting an organization. The movement for organization seems to have been made possible by reason of the fact that the principal Chicago street railway franchises expire next year, and pending their renewal the companies deemed it unwise to adhere to the old policy of opposition to unions in the face of the determination of their men to organize. Having organized, the men asked for higher wages, presenting a scale calling for twenty-eight cents an hour. The company, after deliberation, offered to pay twenty-four cents an hour. The men asked for arbitration, which was granted, each side naming one representative, and the two so chosen selecting a third. The decision of the arbitration board, which was made public July 25, was signed by all three of the arbitrators, and was to the effect that the new rate offered by the company—twenty-four cents an hour—was reasonable and should be the rate of pay from August 1, 1901, to October 1, 1903. It is also stipulated that the working day for men assigned to regular runs shall not be less than eight nor more than eleven hours, the whole to be completed in fifteen consecutive hours. There is an exception to the effect that if there be men who desire twelve-hour runs and they can be arranged, both sides are privileged to carry out the arrangement, and all men may voluntarily perform extra work or make extra trips. The wage increase applies only to the employés of the City Railway Company, that operates about one-fourth of the street railway mileage of Chicago. The employés of the other companies are asking for higher wages, but there seems to be less disposition on the part of those companies to comply with the request. The new wage scale of the Chicago City Railway Company is the highest paid to electric railway conductors and motormen in any city of the United States except San Francisco, where the men went on strike a few weeks ago and won. In San Francisco the pay is now twenty-five cents an hour, the working day to be limited to ten hours, and overtime to be paid for at the rate of thirty cents an hour. In Detroit a few weeks ago the street car employés succeeded in getting their wages increased by arbitration to twenty-three and one-half cents an hour, the arbitrator being President Angell of the University of Michigan. In Boston and New York the pay is twenty-two and one-half cents an hour.

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San Francisco under a Labor Mayor

According to a trusted correspondent Mayor Schmitz, of San Francisco, who was elected on an independent ticket, defeating both the Republican and Democratic nominees, is making an excellent record for himself, and is keeping his campaign pledges to run the Government upon an economical basis. He has just sent to the Supervisors thirty-two vetoes, cutting down the budget of nearly six millions of dollars to the extent of $134,700. This he has done without in any wise injuring or crippling the city's service, but simply by lopping off the heads of useless employés. The Mayor found that often three men were employed to do one man's work, and he solved the question by determining that a fair wage demands fair work. As he was elected on a labor union ticket, his action has required not a little courage and shows his entire fairness. Not one item appropriating funds for public improvements or betterments is touched. Another San Francisco event of more than local interest is the contemplated action of the city in regard to what is known as the Geary Street Railroad franchise, which will shortly expire by limitation. A strong sentiment in favor of the city assuming the franchise has developed. The President of the San Francisco

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Municipal League puts the situation thus: "The sentiment in each of the clubs which compose the Municipal League unquestionably is strongly in favor of the municipal ownership of public utilities. It is our conviction that the Board of Supervisers should do everything in its power to acquire the Geary Street road. That step, if the experiment is successful, should be followed by similar action in regard to other roads. If municipal ownership proves to be what we expect, every public utility should be taken under municipal control as soon as possible." The labor unions—a strong factor, as was shown in Mayor Schmitz's election—and many of the improvement societies are working vigorously in the same direction. The Mayor is also interested in the project, and the City Engineer in the meanwhile is preparing the plans for the construction of a modern street railway in Geary Street, to be run on the underground conduit system now in successful operation in Washington, D. C. He calculates that $7,000,000, or less than one-half of the present capitalization of the road, will suffice to build the proposed railway. It is needless to add that the street railway corporations are leaving no stone unturned to defeat the proposition. Not a little of the public sentiment in favor of the proposed experiment is due to the recent street railway strike, with its unpleasant features, the feeling being that with municipal ownership and operation such a condition would be unlikely to recur.

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The Pennsylvania Tunnel Franchise Delayed

When Mayor Low and the Rapid Transit Commission gave their approval to the ordinance granting a perpetual franchise to the Pennsylvania and Long Island railways for a tunnel connecting their lines with a great central station in New York city it was assumed that the ordinance would be accepted by the Board of Aldermen almost as a matter of course. It has for some time been apparent, however, that there was opposition to the ordinance within the Board, and last week when the ordinance was brought to a vote nearly five-sixths of the Board voted against it. The size of the opposition and the reasons assigned for it effectively answered the charge that the franchise was being "held up" merely for the sake of "boodle." The reasons assigned for the opposition were: (1) Unwillingness to grant a perpetual franchise which might establish a perpetual monopoly. (2) Hostility to any franchise which did not stipulate that construction work should be performed under the eight-hour day and paid at the prevailing rate of wages. (3) Desire that the subways should contain pipe galleries in which gas mains, water mains, electric wires, etc., might eventually be carried. (4) A vague fear that New York might lose export business by becoming a "way station" upon the system running under it to the end of Long Island. Mayor Low and the Rapid Transit Board received the criticisms of the Aldermen with tact and good humor, the Mayor quoting Jowett's observation that "none of us is infallible, not even the youngest," and work was begun upon a new franchise which may be acceptable to the Aldermen. On behalf of the Rapid Transit Board, it has been stated that the franchise proposed was not a perpetual franchise in the old sense, as it provided for a revaluation every twenty-five years and a consequent readjustment of the company's payment to the city. The Pennsylvania road would not construct the proposed tunnel without a perpetual franchise, and the city could not construct it and lease to the railroads, as the city could not obtain the title to land on the New Jersey side of the North River. It is furthermore stated on behalf of the Rapid Transit Board that a stipulation that work on the tunnel be performed under the eight-hour system and by workmen receiving the prevailing rate of wages would run counter to a decision of the higher courts in New York, that city contracts could not constitutionally be limited in this way. It is very doubtful, however, if the Court of Appeals in New York would decide that a city could not stipulate in what way its work should be performed, although it has decided that the State could not oblige a city to make stipulations of this sort. At all events, the established practice in the progressive cities of England and the growing practice in this country is that all work for the public should be performed by men working under wholesome

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conditions for adequate wages, and it is the desire and purpose of Mayor Low that the new ordinance for the Pennsylvania tunnel shall contain satisfactory provisions in this respect.

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The Brooklyn Tunnel Franchise Granted

The surprise and disappointment felt in New York over the forced delay of work upon the tunnels connecting New Jersey with Long Island do not, however, compare with the surprise and gratification felt over the prospect for the immediate construction of the tunnel connecting the City Hall in Brooklyn with the City Hall in New York. Two bids for this franchise were submitted, one by a representative of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, and the other by a representative of the Belmont-McDonald syndicate now constructing the rapid transit subway system in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx. Both bids were regarded by engineers as favorable to the city, but the contrast between them was so great that the Rapid Transit Commission had practically no alternative in the matter. The Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company offered to construct the tunnel for $7,000,000 and the necessary terminals for $1,000,000; the Belmont-McDonald syndicate likewise offered to construct the terminals for $1,000,000, but offered to construct the tunnel for $2,000,000. The Brooklyn Company said that in offering to do the whole work for $8,000,000 it expected to lose one million dollars on the construction and recoup itself by the value of the business which the tunnel would bring it. The New York syndicate, in offering to do the same work for three million dollars, claims to anticipate a loss of five or more millions on the cost of construction, but relies upon the profitableness of its future business to make good this outlay. Both bids stipulated that the tunnel should revert to the city at the end of thirty-five years. Of course the bid of the New York syndicate was accepted, and the public looks forward to a unified rapid transit subway system connecting the Bronx, Manhattan, and Brooklyn, with a single five-cent fare. For the present there is disappointment in many parts of Brooklyn, which would have preferred the acceptance of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company's offer, in order that they might by a single fare reach the New York City Hall, but Mayor Low, in giving his vote for the New York syndicate's bid, assured the people of Brooklyn that in the end a single fare would enable them to reach every part of New York.

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Realty

The construction of several new office buildings and hotels in New York city represents an investment of one to ten million dollars each. Such enterprises can of course be more effectively and economically undertaken and managed by large than by small capital. It is not surprising, therefore, that the latest development in the tendency towards combination in various branches of trade was the formation last week of a great realty amalgamation in the metropolis. The surprise is rather that such a combination has not been formed before. The new corporation is hardly a "trust" in the sense of being monopolistic, as the vast number of valuable lots and buildings owned by great capitalists, families, estates, and companies must make extremely improbable any raising of rentals by the new corporation. Some of the most valuable parcels of realty in the best business and residential sections of New York city, however, represent the corporation's assets. These holdings are to be converted into securities and offered to the public. The corporation's capital is placed at sixty-six million dollars. It is not known whether all of this represents actual assets; be this as it may, the new corporation is one of great apparent strength, but its ultimate success must depend on its management. If it contains, as is claimed, the highest available talent, and its assets are also remunerative in the highest degree, investment in its shares should be advantageous to large and small investors, more especially to the latter, since their chances are greater than ever before to diversify their investments. Hitherto the investor of small means has had opportunities for buying a share or shares in railway, banking, gas, electrical, or industrial properties; but realty has largely been denied to him as a form of investment, unless he has been able actually to own a property of that sort, or to purchase it by means of

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mortgage. The department of realty, therefore, has been to him practically an undeveloped world. The event of last week is a long step towards throwing it open to the general public.

Democratic "Harmony"

The conflict in the Democratic party between the "reorganizers" and the "radicals" shows little sign of abatement. It broke out at the recent Democratic Convention in North Carolina, where the influence of the reorganizers upon the State Central Committee was strong enough to prevent a reaffirmation of the Kansas City platform. It broke out again at the more recent Democratic State Convention in Missouri, where the party leaders sought to avoid it by confining the platform to an indorsement of the Democratic State officials, but where a protesting delegate moved to reaffirm the Kansas City platform, and the Convention supported him by a substantial majority. The division in the vote in Missouri was fairly typical perhaps of the division in the party. Of the one hundred and twenty-two St. Louis delegates only four voted to reaffirm the last national platform; but the delegates from the farming districts were nearly all in favor of the reaffirmation. The "harmony" dinner held at Nantasket Beach, near Boston, last week, proved more successful than previous efforts of this sort to bring the warring elements into unison, but even here Mr. Bryan declared that there could be no reunion between those who supported the platforms of 1896 and 1900 and those who opposed them because of hostility to their animating spirit. Men who had differed in judgment, he said, could reunite, but men who had differed in sympathy could not. The permanent and natural division of parties, he declared, using Jefferson's words, was between "aristocrats" and "democrats"—between "those who fear and distrust the people and wish to draw all power from them into the hands of the higher classes" and "those who identify themselves with the people, have confidence in them, cherish and consider them the most honest and safe, though not the most wise, depository of public interests." The Republican party, he declared, had come to be essentially the aristocratic party of this nation, and the Democratic party could not and should not succeed except by making itself trusted by all men essentially democratic in their spirit. To do this, it must not compromise its convictions upon any issue—tariff, trusts, currency, imperialism, or any new issue that presents itself—but must declare its faith steadfastly and explicitly. The upshot of it all was that there should be no compromise with those who make the Democratic party again the conservative party of the country. The two other speakers at the dinner, Senator Carmack of Tennessee and Mr. Shepard of New York, were both in some degree in accord with this attitude—though Mr. Shepard stands nearer to Mr. Cleveland than to Mr. Bryan and believes that Mr. Cleveland is in sympathy with democratic rather than aristocratic tendencies in American life. Mr. Shepard declared that events had put the tariff issue again to the front, and that the voters must this fall decide whether the trusts should be subsidized by the taxes levied upon the people. The question whether or not the Philippines should be given independence on the same lines as Cuba was still vital, he said, but of secondary importance. Senator Carmack declared that this last question was the one of supreme importance, and arraigned the Republican party for its departure from the principles of Lincoln. Senator Carmack's view, needless to say, was that urged by ex-Secretary Boutwell in his letter read at the dinner, and it also received the cordial indorsement of Mr. Bryan. Apparently the radical wing of the party would this year emphasize anti-imperialism while the reorganizers would emphasize the tariff.

Closing Roman Catholic Schools in France

The closing of twenty-five hundred Roman Catholic schools in France, which turns out of doors about six thousand teachers and a hundred and fifty thousand children, by an administrative order of Premier Combes, is drastic enough to satisfy the most extreme Radical; but it is doubtful whether it was just and still more doubtful whether it was wise. In enforcing the Associations Law, which the Premier has pledged himself to

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enforce in its entirety, the Ministry has begun by applying the law to the most sensitive points and in such a manner as not only to arouse the deepest feeling, but to interfere seriously with the education of a large number of children. Many of the schools closed are not only dear to the Church, but they are dear also to the people, and they are said to be among the best in France. Many of these schools are under the charge of sisters in various orders for whom, in France as elsewhere, there is a feeling of great respect. Every one could understand what the Government meant when it laid its hand in one form or another on those priests who had conducted an active propaganda against the Republic; but to close the schools is to strike, not so much at the priests as at the children and at the people at large; and it is not surprising that this extreme measure has evoked a passionate feeling of indignation in the provinces and has led to disorder at many points during the past week. In Paris and in the provinces meetings have been held to protest, and at the capital there have been several clerical outbreaks. As a result of one of these outbreaks three hundred persons were arrested. The Nationalists are making the most of the situation to start a new agitation against the Republic. Premier Waldeck-Rousseau, whose policy in regard to the Associations was firm and consistent but not irritating, is reported as having declared that the Law of Associations did not apply to primary schools maintained by religious societies, and that these schools have been placed in a position which has made it impossible for them to comply with the law. As the lay Government schools cannot accommodate thousands of pupils who are now deprived by the action of the Government of the privileges of primary education, the Government is confronted with the dilemma of either enforcing the law which makes primary education throughout France obligatory, while by its own action it has made it impossible for parents to comply with that law, or of ignoring its violation. It seems to be the general feeling that the Premier has been ill-advised in acting on his own interpretation of an ambiguous law without having obtained the official interpretation of the courts. The probable result will be that the schools which have been closed will make applications for authorization (as they might have made some time ago, saving much friction), and will be quietly reopened.

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The Egyptian Sudan

The work of Sir Reginald Wingate, Governor-General of the Egyptian Sudan, shows that not only in South but also in North Africa the British have been notably furthering the cause of civilization. The Egyptian Sudan extends from the Red Sea westward to the French Sudan, half way across Africa, and from the southern frontier of Egypt nearly fifteen hundred miles to Lake Albert Nyanza, a territory of about a million square miles, and with a population estimated at ten millions. Nearly four years have elapsed since Lord Kitchener ended the Khalifa's rule in the Sudan, and more than three years have elapsed since the convention between the British and Egyptian Governments was signed. Important provisions of this convention were that the Government of the Egyptian Sudan should be administered by a Governor-General appointed, it is true, by Egypt, but with the consent of Great Britain; that laws should be made by proclamation; that the import or export of slaves should be prohibited; that no duty should be levied on imports from Egypt; that duties on imports from other countries should not exceed those levied in Egypt; finally, that the British and Egyptian flags should be used together. Following this convention, the Egyptian Sudan was divided into six provinces, Khartûm, Dongola, Berber, Kassala, Sennar, and Kordofan. Other Sudanese lands have now been incorporated with other countries—Assuân, to the north, with Egypt; Massaua, to the east, with the Italian Red Sea colony; Harrar, to the south, with Abyssinia, and Zeila with British Somaliland.

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The British and the Sudanese

The main efforts of the Governor and of his Inspector-General (Sir Rudolph Slatin, better known as Slatin Pasha) have been directed towards the rehabilitation of industries and transportation. Every month the effects of Dervish sloth and oppression—depopulation,

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uncultivated lands, abandoned commerce —have become less evident, and it is now expected that the Egyptian Sudan will develop into a great grain-producing region. A chief factor in this result has been the establishment, largely through Lord Kitchener's efforts, of the Gordon Memorial College at Khartûm, the capital, an institution specially directed towards the teaching of agriculture and engineering. The college is free from any religious bias, and thus appeals strongly to the Muslims, who otherwise would be afraid of proselytism. An intermediate grade of schools has also been established, to take boys from the schools of the mosques and to fit them for higher teaching at Gordon College. In the domain of transportation two great works have now been accomplished. The Nile has been cleared of the compact mass of sudd, or tangle of water-plants, which has long not only checked communication northward from Uganda and the Congo States, but has also choked the great river itself to the inevitable ruin of contiguous lands. Secondly, Khartûm, which the Dervishes had reduced to ruins, has now been entirely rebuilt and connected by railway and telegraph with the Mediterranean. It can safely be said that in no part of the world has British colonial rule been at once so intelligently applied and so fruitful of good result as by Viscount Cromer in Egypt and by the Governors-General of the Egyptian Sudan.

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Cardinal Ledochowski Next to the Pope himself, perhaps the most picturesque figure among Roman Catholic ecclesiastics was Cardinal Ledochowski, who died last week. On hearing of the Cardinal's death, Leo XIII. was greatly distressed and exclaimed: "A valiant fighter for the Church and religion has gone. His memory be blessed!" and when the news reached Poland the Cardinal's countrymen gave vent to similar exclamations, their grief amounting almost to a national demonstration, the dead ecclesiastic having been decidedly *persona non grata* to Russia, Germany, and Austria, on account of his sturdy advocacy of Polish independence. Cardinal Ledochowski was born at Gorki eighty years ago. After receiving preferment at the hands of the Church he was condemned, as Bishop of Posen in Polish Prussia, to imprisonment on the ground that he had flagrantly disobeyed the Falk laws, limiting the control exercised by the Roman Catholic Church in Germany. Bishop Ledochowski spent two years in jail, and was obliged to pay a heavy fine and to witness the confiscation of his property by the Government. At the close of his term of imprisonment he was expelled both from Prussia and Austria. Pius IX. invited him to take up his residence in Rome, and offered him apartments in the Vatican, besides elevating him to the Cardinalate. When William II. became the German Emperor he made friends with Cardinal Ledochowski, and from that time the Cardinal became a champion instead of a bitter antagonist of German interests at the Vatican. This was followed by the Cardinal's appointment to the important position of Prefect of the Congregation of the Propaganda. In this office he was charged with the conduct of all intercourse between the Roman Catholic clergy and the Holy See. He was really the Viceregent of the Pontiff, and as he was always arrayed in Cardinal's red became known at Rome by the name of "the Red Pope," just as the General of the Jesuit Order, who now spends the greater part of the year at Rome and is arrayed in black, goes by the name of "the Black Pope." The Supreme Pontiff, of course, wears white. Cardinal Ledochowski possessed a particular interest for Americans, since the United States is now claimed to be the most important country with which the Propaganda has to deal. The last thing to which the Cardinal gave his attention before his death was the question of Archbishop Corrigan's successor.

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The Friars There are many evidences that the country understands the spirit in which the Government is dealing with the question of the friars in the Philippines thoroughly; and there is no disposition in any influential quarter to misrepresent the facts or to endeavor to awaken religious prejudices. It is clearly understood that the Government is acting in behalf of the Roman Catholic population in the Philippines, and that its

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proposed dealing with the friars is based entirely on their past political record and the antagonism among the Filipinos which their association with the tyranny of the past has aroused. Archbishop Ireland, in a recent speech, with characteristic breadth of view, said some things which ought to be widely read by Protestants and Catholics:

And now it is to be hoped there will be among certain classes of Catholics in America a cessation of movements and declarations such as we have had recent occasion to hear of regarding religious matters in the Philippines. The Pope teaches these Catholics to trust the American Government, as they seemingly have been heretofore unwilling to do. In his conversation with Governor Taft he expressed the highest esteem for American methods of treating Church matters, and remarked that he had more than once pointed toward the United States as setting an example well worth copying. His words ought to signify something to those who profess to take him as their leader and guide. At any rate, the direction of Catholic affairs is his business, not that of irresponsible Church societies or newspaper editors, and when he informs Catholics that any one matter is in his hands they ought promptly to step aside and allow him to have charge of it. The question of religion in the Philippines is now formally and officially his own, and it should be considered as such. A few there may remain who will still believe that they have a better understanding of it than he has, and will insist on telling him how to handle it, but such as these are few, and, at least, it will be clear that they hold no brief whatever from the Catholic body at large. The agitation, such as it was, in certain Catholic quarters did no honor to those who participated in it. As is now proven, they spoke and acted without due knowledge, and certainly without proper regard for the Government of their country. They should first have been absolutely certain that injustice had been done to their co-religionists, and next, if injustices had been done, they should have sought a remedy for them by appeal to the proper officials before raising in public irritating clamors.

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And as to schools in the Philippines, why not, when the presence of non-Catholic teachers is talked of, state that out of a total of five thousand teachers thirty-five hundred are Filipino Catholics? Why not state that Father McKinnon is a member of the School Board of Manila? And why, when mention is made of non-Catholic teachers, allow the false impression to go abroad that many of these were ministers and active proselytizers? And why not remember that, by the law of the islands, clergymen who are ministers in any place of organized congregations may three times a week teach religion in the schools of the place, the condition that they be ministers of organized congregations virtually confining the privilege to the Catholic priesthood? Perhaps, ideally, something more might be desired; but the conditions within which the Government is confined must be considered; and, at least, when disadvantages to religion are quoted, the advantages that are allowed should also be set forth.

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Hankau The Rev. Griffith John, of the London Missionary Society, has been in China nearly half a century. He has long been established at Hankau, which, with Hanyang and Wuchang (the latter the capital of the province of Hupe), contains a population of several millions, and is a vast commercial center. It is the greatest native mart in the Empire. Mr. John calls it the Chicago of China. As the central terminus of several proposed railway systems, Hankau is destined to grow still more in size and importance. Mr. John proposes that it shall now become not only a commercial but an educational center. Politically, of course, it has a specially commanding influence over the provinces of Hupe and Hunan, the people of which, according to Mr. John, in a recent number of "The Missionary Review," are the most wide-awake of any. He tells us that the province of Hunan is now open to the Gospel. "We have taken possession of more than ten walled cities in this long-time closed province, and established between thirty and forty mission stations in the counties of which these cities are county towns. Without some arrangement for the regular training of native evangelists and teachers, how is this immense field to be cultivated? A theological college seems absolutely necessary. Behind the college, however, there must be a high school which shall act as a feeder." China will never be made Christian through the sole agency of foreign missions. Hence, for the natives of Central China, as a training for the ministry, Mr. John would provide at Hankau, not only a theological college, but also a medical school, together with primary and high schools for both sexes. While religion is the principal cause of this undertaking, education in general should also greatly benefit by it, especially as China does not present a finer center for an all-round educational campaign than Hankau. The Chinese Government has declared that it would establish a college of each of the

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one hundred and eighty prefectures of the Empire and a university in the capital of each of the eighteen provinces; but there has been characteristic and irritating delay in the prosecution of this plan—a delay which the London Missionary Society cleverly proposes to take advantage of by opening what should become a modern university, where the best natives may be thoroughly trained to become teachers in many branches of knowledge. When the Government is ready to put its promises in practice, it will have that which is now lacking—a sufficient number of teachers and professors to supply the new schools and universities. The sympathy, not only of all Christians, but of all those interested in education, must go with the great work to which a veteran missionary has now put his hand. It should be the crown of an honored life.

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Christian Unity in Missions

A real step toward church efficiency and Christian unity was taken at the Conference of Young People on Missionary Work held last week at Silver Bay, Lake George, New York. For a long time there has been growing a feeling that the young people in the churches were not utilized in support of missions, home and city as well as foreign, to the degree that was possible. Last December there was a conference in New York City of some who were especially interested in this subject, and the success of that led to the arranging for another conference at Silver Bay Hotel, Lake George, during this month. Over a hundred and seventy delegates, representing sixteen denominations and seventeen States, assembled and discussed the best means for enlisting young people in active support of missions. The various forms of organization, National, State, district, and local, were considered and definite plans proposed for each. Classes were held on Bible study, home and foreign missions; missionary meetings were conducted in such a way as to give the delegates an idea as to the best methods for such gatherings. Forty-six different boards, home and foreign, were represented by officers or members, and denominational group meetings were held in which the particular needs of each denomination were considered and plans proposed for aggressive work. On the other hand, never has interdenominational fellowship been more marked. Except for the group meetings, the denominational lines would have been unrecognizable. Congregationalists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Methodists, Baptists, Disciples, mingled with not a trace of denominational rivalry or exclusiveness. Those desiring to know of the methods of the movement can obtain information by writing to Mr. S Earl Taylor, 150 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

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Theology and Missionary Enterprise at Harvard

The Harvard Summer School of Theology in its fourth annual session during the first three weeks of July had for the general topic Current Problems in Theology. In some respects the most notable element was the agreement among lecturers of very different cast of mind in emphasizing dogma as essential to religion. Professor G. H. Palmer, of Harvard, protested against religion that consisted merely in emotion, worship, and good works, without the element of dogma. Professor Nash, of the Episcopal Theological School in Cambridge, declared that altruism without dogma was hopeless. Professor H. C. King, of Oberlin, in the course of his lectures on "The Obscurity of Spiritual Truth," said: "The fundamental implication of all thinking and knowledge requires some kind of a finally theistic assumption," and added that "the truth is, probably, always greater than our reasons for holding it." On the other hand, that the dogma of the future would be different from that which had come to us under that name from the traditions of the past was suggested by all three of these lecturers. Reliance upon God as the Great Reality and recourse to the fact of Christ—or, in other words, a dogma that is personal, not mechanical—seemed to be the conclusion reached in most of the lectures. This conclusion was admirably set forth by Professor F. G. Peabody, of Harvard, in the closing lecture of the session. Professor James, as in his Gifford Lectures, lent the weight of his authority as a psychologist to the acceptance of spiritual experience

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as real. Professor Moore described and contrasted the "salvation-religions" of the world, and distinguished Christianity as supreme. Other lecturers were: President Tucker, of Dartmouth; Professor Coe, of Northwestern; Professor Foster, of Chicago; Rev. C. F. Dole, and Professor Cone, of St. Lawrence. Lecturers and students alike were of various denominations. In this fact may be found one cause for great value and unquestioned success of the Harvard Summer School of Theology.——Mr. E. C. Carter, for three years Secretary of the Christian Association at Harvard, is going to India to be a traveling secretary of the Young Men's Christian Associations in that country. His departure is the result of an active missionary movement at Harvard. The cost of the enterprise is to be met by Harvard students. There is no such university organization behind this project as that of the student missionary movement initiated by Yale men for work in China, but it is expected that in the course of a few years a number of Harvard men will follow Mr. Carter to India to engage in similar work. These simultaneous movements at Harvard and Yale are significant of the attitude of university men toward foreign missions—an attitude that augurs well for both missionary work and the universities.

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Negro Missionaries For some ten years "the Congo Mission" has been doing in the heart of Africa a good work that deserves to be better known here. It is one of the fruits of the higher education that is as essential a need of the negro as of the white. It is sustained by the churches, mostly negro, connected with the Congregational Association of Alabama, with whom negro Presbyterian churches co-operate. Its missionaries have been mostly trained at Talladega College, Alabama, which, while not neglecting industrial and agricultural training, has sent forth many well-educated preachers from its theological school. A paper read at the annual meeting of the Alabama Woman's Missionary Union describes the flourishing work carried on by graduates of Talladega in their Congo Mission at Luebo and Ibange in the Congo Free State. The pioneers, Messrs. S. N. Lapsley and W. H. Sheppard, began work there in 1892; the former died in two years, but Mr. and Mrs. Sheppard have now at Ibange a church of a hundred members and a good school. In 1894 Miss Fearing and Miss Thomas, also of Talladega, settled at Luebo, where now they have a school of over a hundred pupils, named after the Pantops School in Virginia, who are under instruction not only in religion, but in the ways of civilized life. Here, where Mr. and Mrs. Sheppard labored five years, there are now two churches. After the first had been enlarged three times, the second, of brick, was built with a seating capacity of fifteen hundred. A negro friend in Virginia donated the press for making the brick. These two churches have now six hundred members, There are white missionaries also at Luebo, and it is needless to say that no color line there divides the joint endeavor to uplift the African race. For some years the negro children in the churches sustaining this Congo Mission were collecting means to build a missionary steamboat for use upon the great river. Two years since it was transported in sections across the ocean and up the Congo to Leopoldville, where it was put together by the talented missionary stationed there, the Rev. L. C. Voss. The boat, named for the deceased pioneer of the mission, Samuel N. Lapsley, reached Luebo in May of last year amid tumultuous rejoicings both of the mission and the friendly natives. The enlarged operations thus made feasible, and also the furloughs required by the men and women so long at work in the tropical heats, demand immediate re-enforcement of the mission. It is well that colleges exist peculiarly fitted to appreciate the opportunity and to respond to it. Fresh reason appears for fostering these institutions, for the needs of Africa as well as of America.

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An Educational Conference of Citizens For the past four years a number of societies concerned in public education and organized in various cities have united in annual meetings for the purpose of comparing methods of work. They are composed not of educational experts but of citizens who are interested in the welfare of the public schools. Though they cannot be said to

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have professional standing, they reflect the best public sentiment of their respective cities. This year the societies met in Baltimore early in May. At each of these annual meetings some definite subject relating to broad educational interests has been presented and discussed; for instance, when the societies met at Brookline in Massachusetts, the subject was "The Organization of Educational Forces in a Community;" at Newark, New Jersey, "The Various Phases of Nature Study." This year, at Baltimore, the subject was "The School House as an Object Lesson in Utility and Beauty." Mr. Crosby's illuminating article, which appears elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook, was one of the papers then read. Mr. Starr Cadwallader, whose article on "The Story of Home Gardens," published in The Outlook of February 1 of this year, described the home gardens of Cleveland, Ohio. School architecture, school sanitation, and school decoration were discussed respectively by Mr. C. B. J. Snyder, the Superintendent of School Buildings in New York and also a well-known architect, Mrs. Ellen H. Richards of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer, to whose inspiration is largely due the efforts for the artistic improvement of schools in New York. An interesting exhibition of pictures for school decoration was arranged by Mr. G. S. Kellogg of the Teachers' College of Columbia University. It should be mentioned that the educational museum of the Teachers' College, of which Mr. Kellogg is curator, is a bureau of information for everything relating to school equipment, and those desiring suggestions on any lines can there find most definite aid. Such meetings as these are of great practical benefit, chiefly because they indicate ways in which citizens who do not pretend to expert knowledge in educational matters can direct their energies to the improvement of the public schools.

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Road Regulation There are many signs that public opinion in regard to the proper regulation of automobiles on the highways is crystallizing, and that these vehicles will hereafter be used under rules which will afford protection to those who travel in other ways. Until very recently reckless drivers of automobiles, of whom unfortunately there have been too many, have encountered mainly village officials, and many of them have been somewhat scornful of interference. When they have been fined they have sent the chauffeur to make a settlement with the authorities, and have gone on to repeat their offenses in other places. An indifference to the safety of other people has been shown by many drivers of automobiles which has been nothing short of brutal; the callousness of many people of means has had shocking illustration, as it has in all previous ages. A woman of fashion was heard to say, not long ago, that the only way to enjoy an automobile ride was never to look behind. On several occasions she had looked behind and seen sights which made her very uncomfortable for half an hour! But the automobile question is now being dealt with in a practical way, and by people who will make their influence felt. Many large country places which offer park privileges to carriages are closed to automobiles. At Newport a block system has been devised and is in operation on some of the drives. At Lenox and Stockbridge rewards are offered for the prosecution and conviction of fast drivers. The Meadow Club at Southampton has excluded automobiles. Some of the automobile associations, recognizing the danger of the present situation, are issuing stringent rules governing their members, and the time is not distant when these vehicles will be put on a proper basis and will cease to endanger the lives of persons who choose to travel by other methods. It is doubtful whether the great racing machines ought to be allowed on the highways at all. They are almost as large as locomotives and quite as offensive to horses. It will take time to work the problem out; but the automobilists will learn that the highways belong to the entire public and are not to be abused, either by the introduction of machines which are dangerous by reason of their size and color, or by the driving of automobiles at a speed too great for safety. In this country liberty is too often interpreted as license. Automobilists will have the liberty of the highways upon condition that they respect the liberty of other users of the same thoroughfares.

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Educational Progress of the Year

The academic year that has closed is literally crowded with happenings full of significance for those who follow closely the development of educational thought and action. It is difficult at such close range to measure the relative importance of the most striking events of the year, and it may well be that they tell their own story better than any chronicler could possibly do.

A notable event was the introduction into the British Parliament of an Education Bill by the Salisbury Government, and the lively controversy which its introduction has precipitated. Most Americans would doubtless say that the bill is a bad one on learning that it is vigorously opposed by Mr. James Bryce and Sir Joshua Fitch; but the matter can hardly be settled so easily. The fact that an English Ministry, and a Tory Ministry at that, should feel compelled to propose a comprehensive educational measure is worthy of attention. However, Mr. Bryce's argument that the bill weakens the only two forces that since 1870 have worked to improve elementary education, the School Boards and the Education Department, cannot be answered. It is true also that it tends to develop the system of State-aided denominational schools. On the other hand, the bill recognizes that there is such a thing as public secondary education, and, with certain reservations, it provides for one local authority for public education of all grades. The beginnings of popular control of all types of school are made possible by the bill, and on this foundation much can be built hereafter. At this distance it is impossible to realize the heat of the debate which is going on both in and out of Parliament, or to value properly the powerful forces, social, political, and ecclesiastical, which are struggling for the mastery. Mr. Gladstone's prophecy, made a year or two before his death, that the education question would be the next great issue in English politics, is already justified.

Quietly and without ostentation a sweeping change was made a few weeks ago in the educational system of Prussia. This change is nothing less than the displacement of the study of Greek from the commanding place which it has occupied so long in the gymnasia or classical secondary schools. English is the language which chiefly gains by the new order of things, for instead of, as heretofore, forming no part of the regular course, being offered as an extra or optional study only to those who specially wished to take it, English is now made a regular study in the gymnasial course and is required of those who desire to avoid Greek. The profession of law has within a very short time been thrown open to those students who have no knowledge of Greek, and it is not so many years since the same step was taken in regard to medicine. Therefore, in Prussia at least, Greek is no longer a compulsory study in the secondary schools, except for those who propose to study either theology or the classical languages and literatures at the university. This change is revolutionary in the full sense of the word.

Within our own borders the most important movement of public opinion on educational subjects is beyond question the stirring among the people of the South. How much the Southern Education Conference and the work of the General Education Board have contributed to this, readers of The Outlook well know. The time has finally come which leaders like Dr. Curry, Presidents Alderman and Dabney, and Principals McIver and Branson have looked forward to for years and worked for with a holy zeal. Public men in the South are now willing to do something and to vote something for education. Men like Governor Aycock, of North Carolina, and Governor Montague, of Virginia, are outspoken and emphatic, and another generation will certainly witness a wonderful burst of effectiveness on the part of public education in the Southern States.

Mr. Carnegie's gift of ten million dollars to establish at Washington, not a university, but a non-teaching foundation to organize and conduct research only, puts a capstone upon our university system and strengthens American education at its weakest point. Our research work hitherto has been too scattered and too incidental. The great universities are not as yet sufficiently endowed to set free any large number of teachers for purposes

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of prolonged investigations. Lectures and administrative work too often weigh down the life of a man whose every instinct is to push out into new fields of knowledge. The Carnegie Institution will, if wisely conducted, first seek out the most promising investigators and then surround them with ideal conditions for their best work. It should become a great intellectual clearing-house, and the aid and adjuvant of every real university in the land.

Three imposing celebrations—the bicentennial of Yale and the installation of new Presidents at John Hopkins and at Columbia—have served to draw public attention forcibly to the new and commanding position which the great universities have taken in the National life. General interest in their work and welfare was never so great, and the stream of benefactions is unceasing.

Public education in the United States has gone forward without any striking changes. The sad death of Colonel Francis W. Parker called out a host of spontaneous tributes to his splendid work for the liberation of the elementary school from the old bonds of formalism, and served to emphasize strongly the revolutionary changes that have taken place since he began his work at Quincy, Mass., a quarter-century ago. Unfortunately, the politician and self-interested schemer, whom Colonel Parker fought unceasingly and with splendid courage, has not yet released his hold upon the public schools. In Philadelphia, it is in evidence at a public official hearing that teachers are forced to pay a large fee to members of the local or sectional school boards to secure appointment, and to make annual political subscriptions to the coffers of the dominant party in order to retain their places. This is the old, familiar story of sectional boards and local committees. Philadelphia should follow the example of New York and throw off this incubus from its school system at any cost of time and effort. In New York the fight lasted fully fifteen years, but the results have amply justified it all. The politicians will fight tooth and nail, and scores of well-meaning but timid teachers will aid them; but if the issue is made sharp and clear, only one result is possible.

From the West, too, come choler-raising stories of political chicane by which so admirable a public officer and educational leader as Mr. O. T. Bright, county superintendent of schools in Cook County, Illinois—the county in which Chicago is situated—has been lost to his work, and Superintendent Wolfe, of Kansas City, Kansas, displaced, because of a local political quarrel in which he was in no way involved. In Minneapolis, also, there has been a revival of political "bossism" in public school management which has aroused indignation among the best men in all parties. These are the things which, recurring as they do year after year, make us realize that our school system is still immature and our public opinion woefully fickle in spots. The spoils system and ultra-partisanship have eaten far into our political standards and ideals, and to rid ourselves of them and their baneful effects is not the task of a day or a year.

A very significant fact of the past year is the new and widespread recognition by European observers of the influence of the American educational system upon national prosperity and upon the stability of democratic institutions. The presence in the United States of M. Alfred Croiset, the distinguished Hellenist, dean of the faculty of letters of the University of Paris, and of Mr. Michael Sadler, director of special inquiries and reports at the Education Office in London, both carefully studying the principles and practice of our education, shows this plainly. Our country's educational exhibit at the Paris Exposition of 1900 was a veritable revelation to the leaders of European opinion.

Among the publications of the year only a few are noteworthy. The most important by far is Paulsen's new and comprehensive work entitled "Die deutschen Universitäten und das Universitätsstudium," which is marked by the distinguished author's vast learning and charm of style. The several volumes of Reports that have come from the British Education Office under Mr. Sadler's editorship are valuable to the point of being indispensable. Mr. Marion's "L'Education des jeunes filles" and Professor Edward R. Shaw's "School Hygiene" stand out, in a class by themselves, from among the scores of educational books treating of special topics or particular departments of instruction.

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A Notable Programme

The Summer School of the South, of which a correspondent gives an account in another column, is one of the many signs of the notable awakening interest in educational matters throughout the South. Nearly two thousand teachers were in attendance at Knoxville, including a large number of college professors and school superintendents. Addresses were made by President Hall of Clark University, President Alderman of Tulane, Mr. Hughes of Toronto, President Thompkins of the Chicago Normal College, President Dabney, and other well known leaders of education both North and South. But, as The Outlook's correspondent points out, the real significance of the occasion was not so much in the group of eminent men who spoke from the platform, but in the size and character of the audience which listened to them. The meetings, like all meetings for educational purposes which have been held in the Southern States of late, were characterized by a degree of enthusiasm which shows that the South has put its heart into this new chapter of its history; and where the South puts its heart it does its very best work.

The declaration of principles adopted by the Summer School makes it clear that this new evolution grows out of Southern history and is a new expression of the old life which has given the history of the South a touch of heroism, even when it was following mistaken lines. The teachers assembled at Knoxville frankly recognized the fact that a large majority of the 3,500,000 white children and the 2,500,000 black children of the South are not provided with good schools; that two years ago ten Southern States, having twenty-five per cent. of the school population of the country, owned only four per cent. of the public-school property and expended only six and a half per cent. of the public-school moneys. In dealing with this situation, the Southern teachers, accepting local taxation as the foundation upon which a public-school system should be built, propose to agitate in behalf of such taxation in every community; to secure development both along agricultural and mechanical lines; to make the school the social centre of the community, touching all the social and economic interests of the people, and including manual training, nature study, and agriculture as well as the usual academic subjects. They favor consolidation of weak schools into strong central schools, and indorse the movements recently made by the women of the South to secure model schools built with due regard to sanitation, ventilation, and beauty. Emphasizing the fact that teaching should be a profession and not a stepping-stone, they declare for the highest training of teachers, for the taking of public schools out of politics, and for the establishment of a system in which merit shall be the chief means of advancement. They express their deep appreciation of the work of the Southern and General Education Boards, which "in numerous other ways are strengthening the patriotic efforts of the Southern people to improve their educational conditions." The movement of which the summer school is another expression must be counted among the most promising and important movements of the day in this country.

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Religious Journalism

The announcement that the New York "Evangelist" has been merged with "Christian Work" and will cease to exist as a separate journal caused no surprise to those who have known the history of religious journalism in this country during recent years. The "Evangelist" was for a long time a prosperous and influential journal under the editorship of Dr. Henry M. Field, a versatile and interesting writer of marked personality, who gave his paper an individuality of its own and drew to it not only a large constituency of readers, but made them his friends. Several years ago Dr. Field withdrew, and the "Evangelist" has been making a brave fight against adverse conditions under the charge of Mrs. Louise Seymour Houghton—a courageous and capable woman who was attempting to accomplish the impossible. The absorption of the "Evangelist" by "Christian Work" involves no change in the editorial management of that journal, which remains as before in the charge, so far as its editorial pages are concerned, of Major

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Marshal H. Bright, whose freshness, versatility, and vital interest in the movements of the day in many fields have given "Christian Work" its distinctive interest and quality for years past, and whose breadth of view, combined with conservatism of temper, pre-eminently fits him to speak acceptably to the readers of a liberal Presbyterian journal as well as to those of a non-sectarian paper.

The decline of so-called religious journalism—that is to say, of journalism devoted specifically to church news, church movements, and church interests, in distinction, although not necessarily in antagonism, to general religious news, broad religious interests, and fundamental religious conception of life—has sometimes been interpreted as indicating a decline of interest in religious matters. This is not sustained by the facts. What has taken place has been a broadening of the religious conception of life and therefore of the functions of a newspaper conducted in the religious spirit for religious ends. When the old-time religious newspapers were started small attention was given to religious matters by the daily press; now all the leading newspapers devote large space both to religious matters in the broad sense of the word and to church news; all important matters of interest to the pulpit, the pews, the Christian Endeavor movement, the Young Men's Christian Association, the students' movement, institutional churches, societies and organizations of every kind for work among different classes of society and to effect specific reforms; in a word, all matters relating to the functions of churches, religious societies, and the practical expression of the religious life are treated at length and as part of the important news of the day by all leading journals. In such journals appears from time to time serious and for the most part sympathetic and capable editorial treatment of movements of religious thought, both within and without the churches. Far more attention is given to-day to religious matters by the press of the country than at any former period in our history.

The gradual disappearance of the old-time religious newspaper is not due to the decay of religion; it is due to a radical change of journalistic conditions, and to a still more radical change in the conception of what constitutes the religious element in life. Men and women no longer read their church newspaper simply because it is the organ of their church; it must be interesting as well as authoritative or they will not touch it. The religious newspaper must justify its existence, like every other newspaper, by its intrinsic interest. It wins its way, not because it is Presbyterian, Episcopalian, Baptist, Methodist, or Unitarian, but because it is well edited and interests its readers. It stands or falls upon its own merits, as it ought to stand or fall.

Men and women are growing away more and more rapidly from the conception of religion as a special department of life; from an arbitrary division between things which are called religious and things which are recognized as secular. They are coming to see that religion is a principle which must penetrate and reorganize every form of life; that it is the underlying basis on which all sound and wholesome life must rest; that it is a point of view from which all things arrange themselves in a new order; that it includes not only organized instruments and methods of religion, but all civic organization, all political questions, the arts, sciences—in a word, the sum of man's life as expressed in thought, in emotion, in action. Religion is not a profession; it is a life. This change is not only one of the profoundest through which society has passed, but it is one of the most beneficent. It is a modern illustration of the principle so often and so strikingly set forth in the Old Testament that "The earth is the Lord's and the fullness thereof," and that holiness is to be written, not only across altars and over the entrance to churches, but everywhere in the world; that personal religion consists not only in deep inward experiences and sincere outward confessions, but also in burden-bearing for others, in the sense of civic responsibility and of human brotherhood in all relations, in the recognition of God, in beauty and order and law throughout his entire universe. It is God in his world and not God in any single church or activity for which modern society is searching.

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THE TRAGEDY OF PELÉE[1]

BY GEORGE KENNAN

VI.

The Western Slope of Mont Pelée

ON the 2d of June, Mr. Jaccaci, Mr. Varian, and I decided to return to Fort de France. We had made as thorough an examination of Mont Pelée as it was possible to make on the eastern side, and it seemed to us that the best thing to do next would be to charter a tug or vessel of some sort in Fort de France and cruise along the base of the volcano from Carbet to Grande Rivière, or Macouba, stopping at St. Pierre, Prêcheur, and other points of interest on our way back. Professor Heilprin and Mr. Leadbeater, who had not yet visited Morne Rouge, wanted to go there for a day, but they promised to rejoin us on Wednesday in Fort de France and go with us up the western coast.

We left Acier about nine o'clock, and found the seacoast road full of fugitives, as usual; but they were not all bound in the same direction. Nearly half of them were apparently on their way back to their homes in Morne Rouge, Ajoupa Bouillon, and Macouba. For more than a month, after Mont Pelée began to be active in May, the whole population of northern Martinique lived an anxious, restless, migratory life. Every time there was an eruption—or even an unusual boiling out of vapor from the main crater—hundreds of families living on the flanks of the volcano, or around its base, caught up hurriedly such household goods and utensils and such supplies of food as they could carry on their heads, and fled to a distance of five, ten, or fifteen miles, according to the intensity of their fear. Then, when the volcano quieted down, they gradually straggled back to their homes, only to be driven away again by a fresh outburst. Old women who could hardly hobble along with a cane, cripples, mothers with young babies in their arms, and children only five or six years of age walked three or four times back and forth, in the scorching tropical sunshine, over distances of from ten to twenty miles, frequently camping at night in the open air, or sleeping in crowded, improvised barracks at Grande Anse, Marigot, or St. Marie. For weeks, therefore, the road between Vivé and Trinité was full of tired, hungry fugitives, hurrying away from the volcano in a panic, or struggling back to their homes with reviving courage when the mountain ceased to threaten. At Grande Anse we found the streets so thronged with refugees that we could hardly make our way through the place, and there were crowds almost as large at Marigot and St. Marie.

We reached Trinité soon after noon, and expected to leave there for Fort de France at once; but we failed to get a fresh relay of mules and were detained until half-past five. The team that we finally did get was either very tired or very much out of condition, and it became evident, before eight o'clock, that we should not be able to drive through to Fort de France that night. It was very dark; the mules could not be flogged out of a slow walk; and it seemed to be doubtful, at one time, whether we should get anywhere before morning. About half-past nine, however, we saw the twinkle of lights ahead, and twenty minutes later we entered the quiet village of St. Joseph. As there was no hotel in the place, we hardly knew where to seek shelter; but at the suggestion of two French gentlemen, who happened to be standing on the street and who volunteered to accompany us, we drove to the house of the curé. Father Jourdan had already gone to bed; but he got up at once, gave us a most cordial welcome, invited the two French gentlemen to

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come in, had supper prepared, and in half an hour we were all sitting around a small dining-table discussing Mont Pelée —the one absorbing topic of conversation in all Martinique.

After a comfortable and refreshing night's rest and a good breakfast, we started again for Fort de France; drove into the city about eleven o'clock, and received a hearty greeting from Consul Ayme, who was beginning to feel some anxiety with regard to our safety. We had been absent twelve days, and it was feared that something might have happened to us in the eruptions of May 26 and 28. Professor Heilprin and Mr. Leadbeater came in from Morne Rouge Tuesday evening, June 3, and early on the morning of the 5th, having chartered the tug Rubis at five hundred francs per day, we steamed out of the harbor and up the western coast of the island.

In approaching St. Pierre by water from Fort de France, the first noticeable signs of volcanic activity appear at the village of Carbet, which is situated about a mile and half south of the city, on the margin of a gently rounded cape. The eastern edge of the volcanic tornado of May 8 just touched this settlement, scorching the cocoanut trees and setting fire to a few houses at its northern end, but leaving intact the central and southern parts of the village, which were protected, to some extent, by high intervening bluffs. Trees standing on the hills behind Carbet and between it and St. Pierre show that the radiating, fan-shaped blast from the volcano extended eastward just far enough to sweep the city, and that a change of half a mile in its direction would have made all the difference between life and death to more than thirty thousand people. The advancing front of the tornado, where it struck the ocean, probably had a width of about four miles; and St. Pierre was half a mile inside of its eastern boundary line.

As we rounded the high cape of Carbet our field of view widened to the northward so as to include the whole gray, desolate slope of the volcano, from St. Pierre to Prêcheur, and from the dark-blue ocean to the broken trade-wind clouds that just drifted across the summit. At first sight and from that distance it looked like a sloping, fan-shaped plain of mud and ashes which had been cut into deep valleys, ravines, and gorges by raging torrents poured out of a wide, V-shaped cleft just under the main crater. Of the great forests that once clothed the upper part of the slope there remained not a trace. They had either been carried down by torrents and landslides or torn to pieces by volcanic hurricanes, and then buried under seventy-five or a hundred feet of ashes and mud. On the hills back of St. Pierre there were still a few branchless trees, but on the western slope of the volcano, between the Rivière des Pères and the Rivière Blanche, there was not so much as a splintered stub. It was simply a vast furrowed expanse of mud and ashes, varying in color from light gray to black, and relieved here and there by white jets or clouds of steam.

The sub-crater in the mud-choked valley of the Rivière Blanche seemed to be quiescent; but high up under the cloud-cap, in the tremendous gorge that cuts the upper slope of mountain almost into halves, I could see huge masses of volcanic rock tumbling out of the main crater and bounding in great leaps down the cañon, emitting dense clouds of steam that half hid them from sight. A long curving plume of vapor trailed away from the summit-crater on the leeward side of the mountain, and as we ran under it it sifted down upon us a shower of fine volcanic dust, which was very irritating to the eyes and throat, and which filled the air with a sort of smoky haze.

The area of complete devastation, on the western side of Mont Pelée, extends from the main crater to the sea, and from the Cape of La Mare, just south of Prêcheur, to the northern end of St. Pierre. Within the triangle that would be bounded by lines drawn through these points there is absolutely nothing except mud, ashes, steam, water, and stones. Every tree, every house, and every sign of vegetation has disappeared. Although for a distance of a mile or two outside of these limits crops have been ruined and trees have been denuded of their foliage by showers of ashes or muddy rain, the crops and the trees are still there, while inside of the triangle there is not a trace nor a vestige of life.

As we steamed northward, beyond

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Prêcheur, blasted trees and withered vegetation became less and less noticeable; the mountain slopes changed in tint from ash-gray to brown and finally to dark green, and after we passed Pearl Rock, about three miles north of Prêcheur, I should not have known, from the color of the foliage or the general appearance of the landscape, that there was an active volcano on the island. We were nearer to the main crater than we had been at Vivé; but the deposit of ashes on this part of the coast seemed to be much thinner than at the mouth of the Capot, and I could not see that it had injured vegetation at all. If I had not just come from the bare, steaming mud-slopes of the Rivière Blanche, I would not have believed that on the same volcano and in the same neighborhood there could be two areas so widely different in appearance. Between St. Pierre and Prêcheur there was hardly a suggestion of foliage or a trace of cultivation; while between Pearl Rock and Macouba everything looked as green and luxuriant as if the nearest volcano were in Iceland or Alaska.

The scenery of the whole northern coast of Martinique is extremely wild and picturesque. The massive arêtes or buttresses which descend from the central mass of the volcano break off on the sea in high, vine-draped precipices; the deep ravines between them are filled with breadfruit trees, wild bananas, and arborescent ferns; and here and there a slender stream leaps out into the sunshine from the dark forest on the brink of a cliff and falls two or three hundred feet into the ocean or upon a narrow strip of sandy beach.

As we came out from under the shelter of the land of Grande Rivière we met a heavy swell raised by the fresh northeast trade-wind; and as we did not care to attempt a landing in the surf that was rolling on the beach, we put about just beyond Macouba, ran back to Prêcheur, and went ashore there to see what damage had been done by the great flood that rushed down on the town through the valley of the Prêcheur River.

The first thing that attracted our attention, as we stepped upon the beach, was the great quantity of volcanic dust which covered the ground, incrusted with a thin gray plaster the walls of the abandoned houses, and lay here and there, in deep, half-compacted drifts, along the empty streets. Much of this dust had doubtless been washed down from the mountain slopes by torrential rains; but hundreds of tons of it must have fallen, like snow, from above. The steady trade-wind had been carrying the vapor from Mont Pelée directly over Prêcheur, day after day, for weeks; and as that vapor was almost always charged with dust, even when the volcano was not in active eruption, there had been an incessant fall of ashes into the town and over the hill-sides back of it. The result was a thicker deposit of this finely powdered volcanic material than could have been found anywhere else outside the area of total destruction. But it was not confined to roofs, walls, and water-washed streets. It had found its way even into closed buildings, and lay, like a century's accumulation of ordinary dust, over tables, chairs, bedding, and floors, so that the inside of a house was often as gray as the outside. This omnipresent grayness of walls, roofs, streets, bushes, trees, and soil, taken in connection with the perfect stillness and the absence of all life, gave a sort of mysterious ghostliness to the whole settlement. In some dwellings that we examined, ashes brought down by flood-water had filled the lower stories to a depth of two or three feet; and half buried in the pasty volcanic mud stood cane-seated rocking-chairs, chintz-covered sofas, cupboards filled with dishes, and tables with kerosene lamps on them, just as they had been left by the panic-stricken occupants when they fled from the deluge of water that seemed to be pouring down upon them from some great fissure in the mountain-side, thousands of feet above their heads.

Near the center of the little town we found, in a rather large wooden building overlooking the sea, the hall of the "Société de Secours Mutuel: L' Union des Dames," which had been used, apparently, as a place of recreation, instruction, and assembly. There were blackboards on two sides of the room, checkers and dice were still lying on the tables, framed copies of the by-laws of the society and lists of active and honorary members had been tacked against the wall between cheap chromo-lithographs of the Emperor

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and Empress of Russia, and from the ceiling hung scraps of ribbon and colored Japanese lanterns that had been used, apparently, to decorate the hall for some recent festivity. Everything was gray with dust, which had blown in at the open windows, and the furniture was all in disorder, as if some one had rushed in hurriedly and ransacked the place in an attempt to save everything of value that could be carried away.

The greater part of the town seemed to have escaped serious injury, but the lower stories of all the houses that stood near the river and that were too solid to be carried away had been filled with mud, wreckage, and débris, and the northern wall of a pretty stone church facing the ocean had fallen into an excavation twenty-five or thirty feet deep which one branch of the furious torrent had cut under it through the loose pumiceous soil. Half of the building was still standing, with a statue of the Virgin, or of some saint, on a pinnacle-like fragment of the front wall over the arched door.

Just north of the church was a steep-sided torrent-track forty-five or fifty feet in depth, and beyond that a stretch of sand and mud a hundred and fifty or two hundred yards across, covered with old volcanic boulders of enormous size which had been torn out of the mountain-side and swept down to the sea in the bed of the once insignificant stream. I think I do not exaggerate when I say that there were hundreds of these boulders, packed together as closely as they could lie, and that they would weigh, on an average, fifteen to twenty tons each. Some of them were twenty feet long by ten or twelve feet in thickness and must have contained at least twenty-five hundred cubic feet. When these colossal masses of rocks came down that ravine in a flood that would have swept away and destroyed a battle-ship, the roar must have been like that of Niagara, and I do not wonder that the terrified inhabitants of Prêcheur fled.

Until the slopes of the volcano above the town shall have been carefully examined, it will be impossible to say with certainty where this deluge of water came from; but I am of opinion that it was nothing more than a cloud-burst, due mainly to the sudden condensation and precipitation of immense quantities of volcanic steam. Professor Palmieri, of the University of Naples, says that great eruptions of Vesuvius were almost always followed by heavy storms of rain, which descended in muddy torrents and caused as much damage as the lava itself. Sir Archibald Geikie, too, asserts that "the destructive torrents so frequently observed to form part of the phenomena of great volcanic explosions" are due, chiefly, to "the condensation of the vast clouds of steam which are discharged during the eruption." It does not seem necessary, therefore, to suppose that the floods which swept through Prêcheur and Basse Pointe came, in liquid form, from the interior of the volcano. They were true volcanic floods, but they had their origin outside of the crater.

Before we had finished our examination of Prêcheur a number of the former inhabitants, who had come from Fort de France with a small tug and a lighter, began to bring away in small boats the furniture from their abandoned houses, and it was evident that no one would try to live in the place until Mont Pelée should again become an "extinct" volcano.

A little before ten o'clock we returned to the Rubis and steamed down the coast as far as the mouth of the Rivière Blanche, where Professor Heilprin, accompanied by Mr. Jaccaci and Mr. Varian, went ashore in a small boat to examine the mud-slope and get the temperature, if possible, of one of the fumaroles. Mr. Leadbeater and I were not particularly interested in fumaroles and therefore remained on board. Mont Pelée at that time was perfectly quiet, and had not shown dangerous activity in two or three days. The summit-crater was smoking as usual, the front of the mud-glacier was steaming a little as it pushed down into the sea, and small jets or clouds of vapor were rising in half a dozen places from the hot, bare slope; but the sub-crater in the valley of the Rivière Blanche was absolutely quiet, and the volcano, as a whole, seemed to be taking a rest. I watched the shore party as they landed from the small boat, and saw them walk three or four hundred yards up the river in the direction of a steaming fumarole. Then I lost sight of them for a few

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moments as they went down, apparently, into the bed of the stream. Five minutes later my attention was attracted to a white cloud of pure steam which came racing down the upper gorge of the Rivière Blanche as if it were rising from a swiftly advancing torrent of boiling water. It looked dangerous, and I wanted to shout a warning to the party ashore; but they were still out of sight and my voice would not carry half the distance. In a moment, however, they reappeared and I saw that they had taken alarm and were running for the boat. They had hardly reached it when there was a sudden and tremendous explosion from both craters, and an enormous mass of dark yellow vapor was projected upward in rolling, boiling convulsions, not only from the craters themselves, but apparently from the entire length of the fissure that united them. Then, from the lower crater, a huge cloud seemed to roll slowly down the slope in the direction of the boat, and the whole western face of the volcano burst into the most terrifying activity. A flood of boiling water, with a wave-front eight or ten feet high, rushed down the Rivière Blanche and precipitated itself into the sea with a great hissing and steaming; explosions in half a dozen different places sent big, fountain-like jets of white vapor to heights of two or three hundred feet; geysers of liquid mud leaped into the air through the clouds of steam that suddenly began to rise from the lower slopes; and the tremendous column of mud-smoke from the crater of the Rivière Blanche boiled up to a height of more than half a mile and then began to open out in huge, cauliflower-like heads.

The Captain of the Rubis rang the bell for full speed ahead and ran directly out to sea, regardless of the men in the small boat, who were making frantic efforts to get away from the coast. I tapped him on the shoulder and said, "You must go back for the boat." He shook his head, and pointing at the really frightful-looking vapor-column over the lower crater said, "Bad! Ver' bad!"

"Yes," I said, "of course it's bad; but you've got to go back for that boat."

He kept on his course two or three minutes longer, and then, having had time to think a little, threw the wheel hard-a-starboard, came round in a big circle, and ran back toward the land. In five minutes more we had the shore party safely on board and were again running out to sea. Mr. Jaccaci wiped his perspiring face, gazed for a moment in silence at the volcano, which was then almost hidden in smoke, steam, and falling ashes, and finally said, without a thought of profanity, "Well, that does look like hell!"

"Yes," said Professor Heilprin; "I've seen a good many volcanic outbursts, but never anything so sudden and on such a scale as that."

Having gained a reasonably safe offing, we ordered the Captain to stop the engine and let the tug drift. The great cloud from the lower crater was then drifting away to the westward, gradually turning from a muddy yellow to a bluish black as it dropped a thick curtain of ashes over the ocean off Prêcheur. The whole lower slope of the volcano was still half hidden in steam, which rose partly from the fumaroles and partly from intermittent floods of hot water that came rushing down the valleys of the Rivières Sèche and Blanche. My impression was then that these floods were true eruptions from the lower crater; but it is equally possible that the water had its origin in rain-clouds which were hanging over the summit, and that it became heated in running down over the mass of hot mud and ashes which lay on the upper slopes. Its appearance in sudden torrents with a high wave-front was perhaps due to the formation and rupture of big dams. The sides of the gorges and ravines above the lower crater were very steep, and avalanches of ashes might slide off them and block up the channel of the stream below so as to dam the water back and form a large pond. Sooner or later the increasing volume of water would burst the dam, and the whole mass would rush steaming down to the sea in a big flood. Then, too, the channels of these streams were deeply eroded in a mass of loose, incoherent volcanic ejectamenta, and dams may have been formed frequently by the undercutting of the stream and the caving away of the undermined banks. It seems to me more reasonable, on the whole, to explain the intermittent floods in this way than to suppose that the lower crater was throwing out hot water every fifteen minutes or half an hour.

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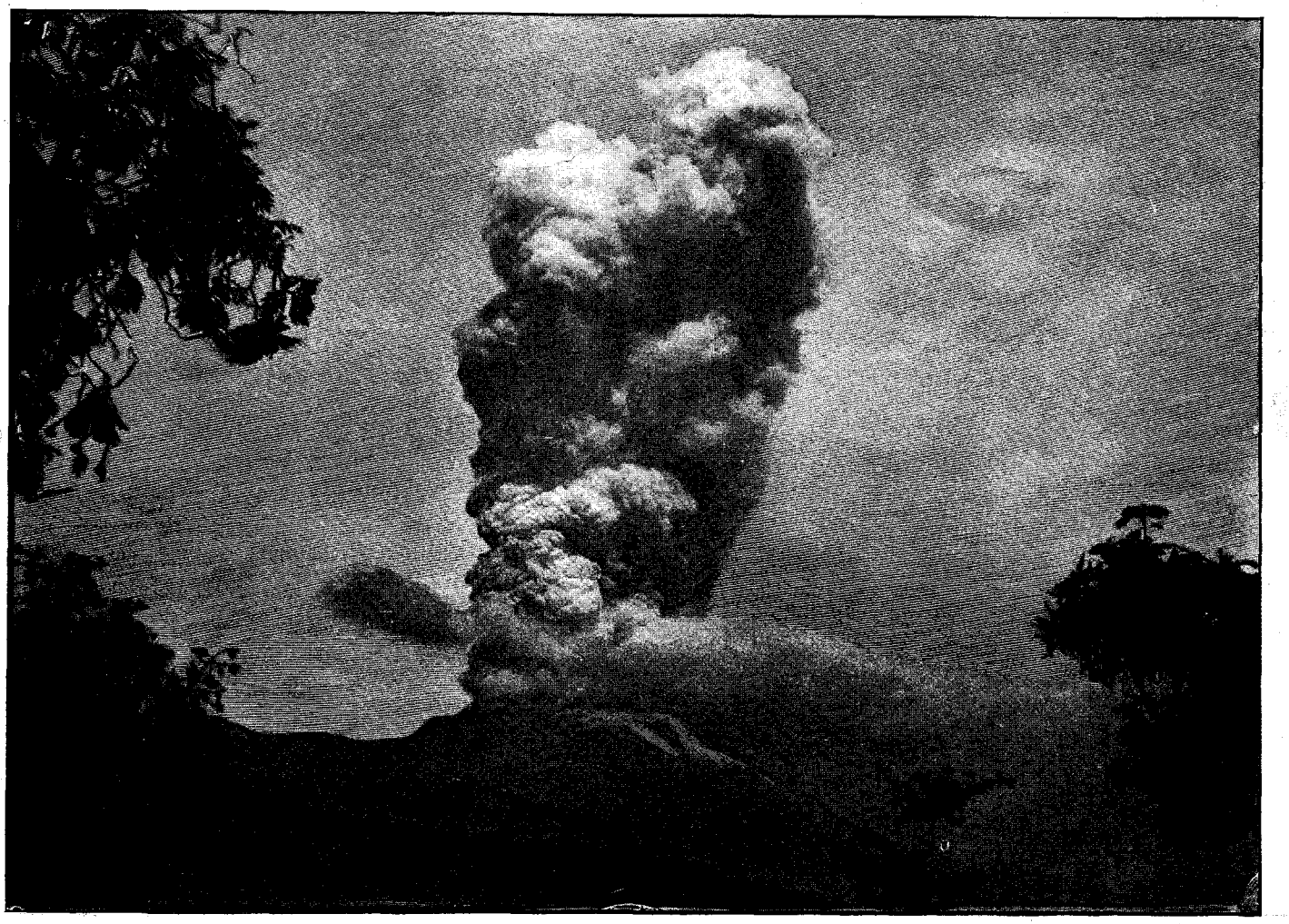

THE ERUPTION OF MONT PELÉE ON MAY 28
From a photograph taken by Mr. Kennan from Acier.

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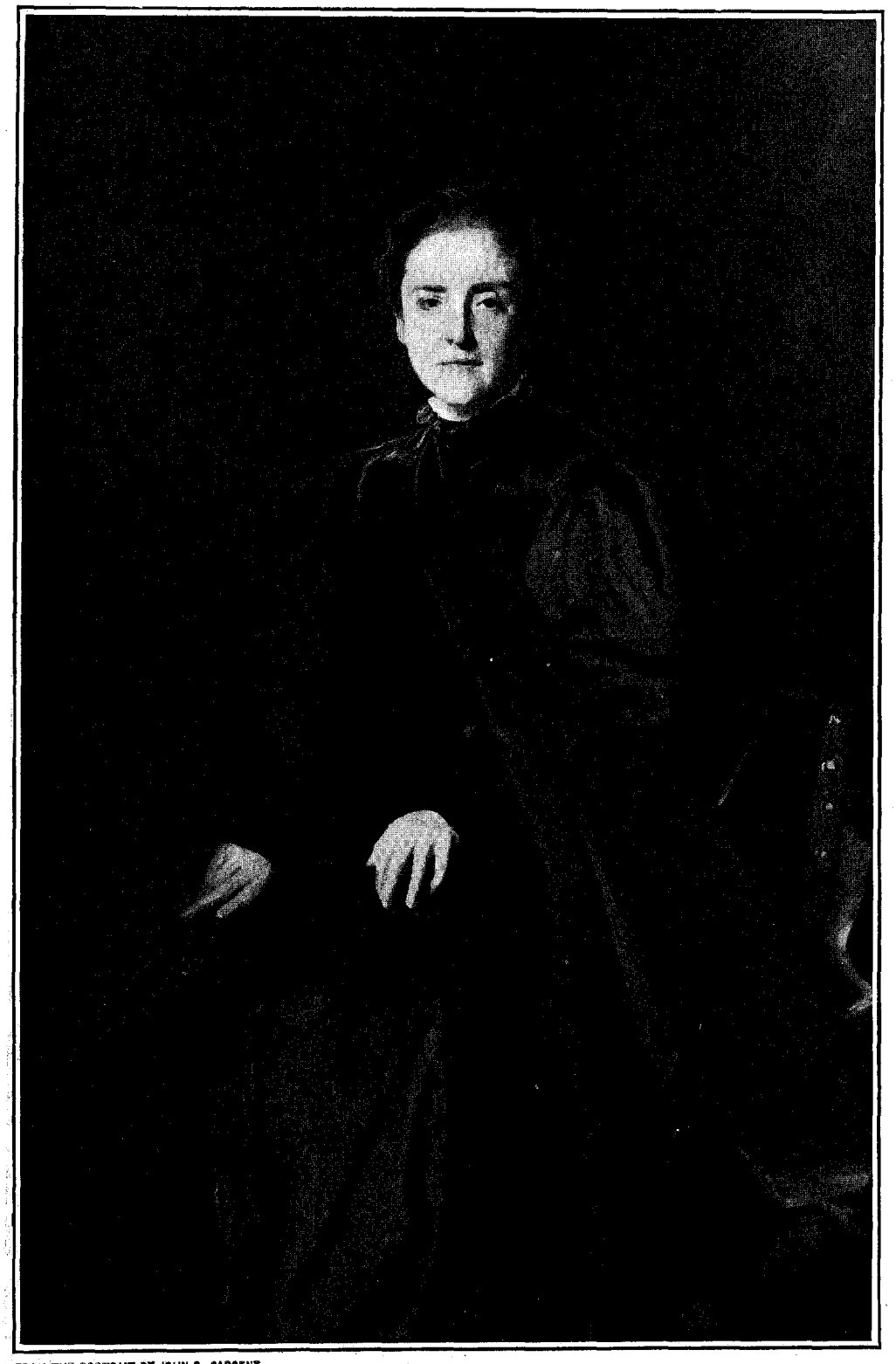

FROM THE PORTRAIT BY JOHN S. SARGENT

M. CAREY THOMAS
President of Bryn Mawr College.

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The Heads of Some Women's Colleges

By Mary A. Jordan

Dean of Smith College

THE separate college for women has the advantage of being the place where experiments in education may have least to fear from tradition and convention. It is, however, in a position of great danger as regards the ability of its governors to meet the requirements of the public for something better than tradition or convention, for something that leaves these behind, antiquates them, and puts them out of fashion by its own intrinsic charm, superiority, and success. That, on the whole, this claim of the public has been well met is proved by the business prosperity and the popularity of these institutions. Their position is unquestionably the most exposed. It is therefore a matter of interest to the observant to consider the small group of women who have conquered or fallen heir to these responsibilities. Differences of character and training are not without their influence here. Yet there is to be noted a certain growing tendency in society to produce a small but highly differentiated class of women who afford what is called presidential timber. The designation is not always precise, the duties are not always clearly defined, but success and failure are not less absolute for being intangible. The woman head of a woman's college has first of all to take herself and her work seriously. In the tongue of an older generation, she must have a call. Nothing is so fatal to success as the ubiquitous elegance of taste that mistakes purposeless excitement for energy. It is almost better to have a mistaken policy than none. Variety of interest and activity is therefore to be looked for from these women "heads." The range of their activity has been steadily increasing during the last twenty years. It is reasonable to suppose that profit as well as chivalry is responsible for their admission to learned societies, their appointment to important committees, and their election now and again to the highest administrative posts.

It is to be regretted, perhaps, that the women governing and directing colleges for women are not admitted to perfect equality and parity in the councils of perfection contributed to by the presidents of colleges for men; but as men who are connected with women's colleges are not admitted either, the exclusion would seem to be on grounds of the problems likely to be important, rather than of the sex of the officer. That women serving as chief executives for colleges for women have a defined policy is shown by the fact that each college has a well-known "type" of its own. There is a widely expressed conviction that certain virtues come out of Wellesley, certain out of Bryn Mawr, and other some out of Wells. The girl whose indeterminate character is quite as much a problem as a promise may find the stimulus she needs at Mount Holyoke, and might miss it, presumably, anywhere else. But, fortunately, this is only indirectly the affair of the woman president; sisters, cousins, aunts, and trainers in the secondary schools keep their fingers on the pulse of this machine. The less immediate and personal responsibility which does rest with the woman president is to be found in her adherence to the body of doctrine, made up of slight traditions, fluctuating customs, and often apparently unreasonable preference, that passes under the name of college spirit. To direct, rule, use, modify, transform, and even consecrate this is one of the important duties of the president of a woman's college. And her position is more difficult than that of a man in the same place; for a woman is expected by her students to "understand" a thousand and one shadings of opinion and feeling, on pain of official death, where dense ignorance would be forgiven in a man quite as a matter of course.

Frequent public appearance is coming to be more and more expected of women heads of colleges by their alumnæ and undergraduates. At the same time hardly less is expected of them in general accessibility. This double demand for competent self-expression in public and in private is a severe drain on the nervous strength of

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PHOTOGRAPH BY ELMER CHICKERING, BOSTON

CAROLINE HAZARD
President of Wellesley College.

the woman who attempts to meet it in full. Demands are made upon her time by her faculty and other officers that would be made only upon the most exceptional man and are for the most part exacted of her in the most matter-of-fact way. Care for the college spirit is thus reinforced by the demands of the social life of the college community. Many hours and much strength go to the consideration of measures that may insure the safe middle way between poverty and excess. To the woman president "self-government" is no name to conjure with. It represents at best another channel into which to pour the best of her mind and heart, and another script on which to write large the principles she stands for. Nor can the most efficient and interested Board of Trustees entirely relieve a woman president from the financial needs of her college. Whatever her private taste and preference, whatever in her secret heart she may elect or in public announce concerning her independence of purse and creature comforts, the day will come when she will literally have to take the road, or sit at the receipt of custom, or organize

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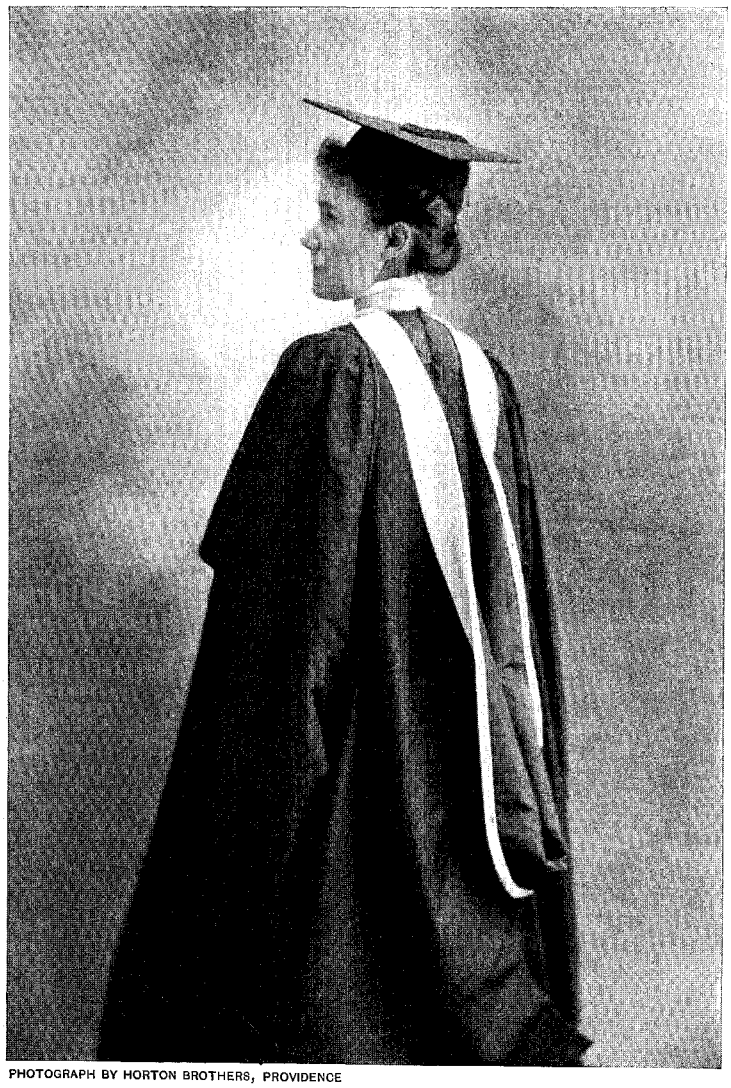

PHOTOGRAPH BY HORTON BROTHERS, PROVIDENCE

MARY E. WOOLLEY
President of Mount Holyoke College.

schemes of a magnitude fairly described as national. She must acquire the habits of a devoted, interested, competent, far-sighted woman of business, and to this end she must manage in some way or other to maintain a sort of *alter ego* for this purpose. She must move automatically from the duties of the woman to those of the officer. And the same social tact and womanly grace are desired of her in contesting a bill as in dispensing afternoon tea. To be a thoroughly equipped woman of business and yet to be without the offensive business manner, to be uniformly gracious, tactful, intelligent, and broadly sympathetic to the best in scholarship, is the almost unique attainment of Miss Caroline Hazard, President of Wellesley College.

The calling of the college for women in the midst of a generation not markedly perverse and untoward, but, at worst, perhaps, heedless and absorbed, has naturally been variously interpreted. Of all the colleges for women, the one which has been most closely allied to the popular heart, which has had the longest and, if one may use the word, the most organic

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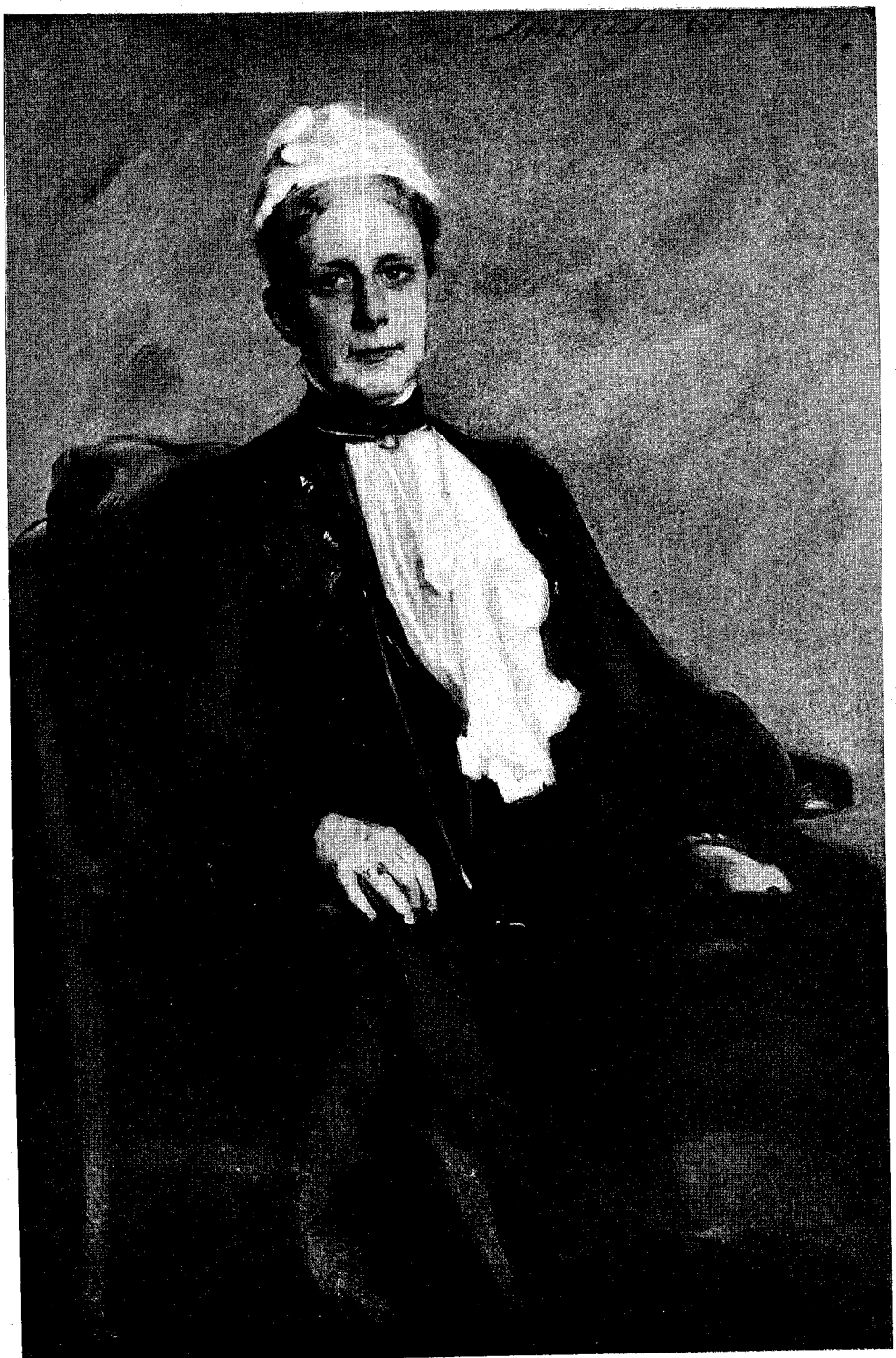

FROM THE PORTRAIT BY ADELAIDE COLE CHASE

HELEN F. SMITH
Dean of Wells College.

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development, is Mount Holyoke. It is possible that in looking at the present college, saved as by fire, and glorious within and without as compared with the old Seminary, Mary Lyon might feel that she had builded better than she knew; but any friend of Mount Holyoke or student of Mary Lyon's work must admit that she knew a great deal and that in all probability she would gratefully acknowledge the work of her hands and recognize her own wider thought. The destiny of this institution, suggested by its origin and enforced by its history for so many years, as a peculiar and welcome expression of democracy in scholarship, will of necessity be advanced by the unusual character and powers of President Mary Woolley. Her place on the platform at the installation of President Nicholas Murray Butler, in virtue of the continuous influence of Mount Holyoke among the oldest institutions of learning, seemed absolutely appropriate. It is the lot of some presidents, as of some institutions, to touch the popular heart, and in still rarer cases to hold the popular heart.

Under these conditions the problems of social life, finance, and scholarship take on new and less exacting form, or, at all events, their methods and the machinery of their solution is less in evidence. The student of Mount Holyoke's history may be pardoned for feeling that now as always there is a touch of consecrated magic about the place and its official representative, spite of all the human toil recorded in its ledgers.

It is one of the recognized forms of human ingratitude that men forget their nurses and throw away their crutches. So women have been prone to forget what they owe to the standard of grace and beauty carried before them, often in weariness and discouragement, by noble women who feared that the knowledge and love of beauty were passing beyond recall. It is, perhaps, the chosen work of Wells College, of which Miss Helen Fairchild Smith is Dean, to impress its students with a sense of the importance of the life they have to live in the world as it is organized about them, to fit them to play their part in it with grace and dignity, and to do this by use of the means too often overlooked or actually misused.

The duties of the president of a college for women are likely to be the reverse side of her pleasures, for there is still enough of the pioneer and the adventurer left to these to make them as interesting as they are onerous. And such duty lays all life under contribution. It is possible, of course, in Matthew Arnold's phrase, to fulfill one's task in hours of gloom, but this is not the characteristic temper of the successful teacher, still less of the successful president under the variety of claims already described. And the relation in which hope, good cheer, energy, enthusiasm, in short, all that goes to make up what is called initiative, are most significant, is that of the course of study. For this is the crux in all education. And when one is best informed on the subject, one is likely to be too old or too discouraged to be of any special use; or one is prone to have become that menace of all true education—a crank. Much here is due from all candid friends of women's education to Bryn Mawr College and its spirited head, Miss M. Carey Thomas. She has never faltered in her own faith in pure scholarship, and she has never permitted any cheap or tawdry substitutes for it, that she could detect, to pass unchallenged. Her hand has been offered in generous help wherever there was a chance for honest work and clear-eyed estimate of results, and she has perhaps served the cause of women's education equally by her free and vigorous condemnation of what seemed mistaken compromise. But the end is not yet. Neither the principle nor the practice of the best course of study has been discovered or laid down. The most that can be said is that the field for experiment is definitely held by women for women with increasing tenacity. Further, there is little if any doubt that from this time on the happiness and usefulness of women will be a considerable factor in determining the trial schemes of education. This happiness and usefulness may be variously described and estimated, the means to it may long be vague or unknown, but by whatever roads, and by whatever names, and with whatever sense of its importance, it will be varied enough to engage all the powers of women as generously and as differently endowed as are the members of this group.

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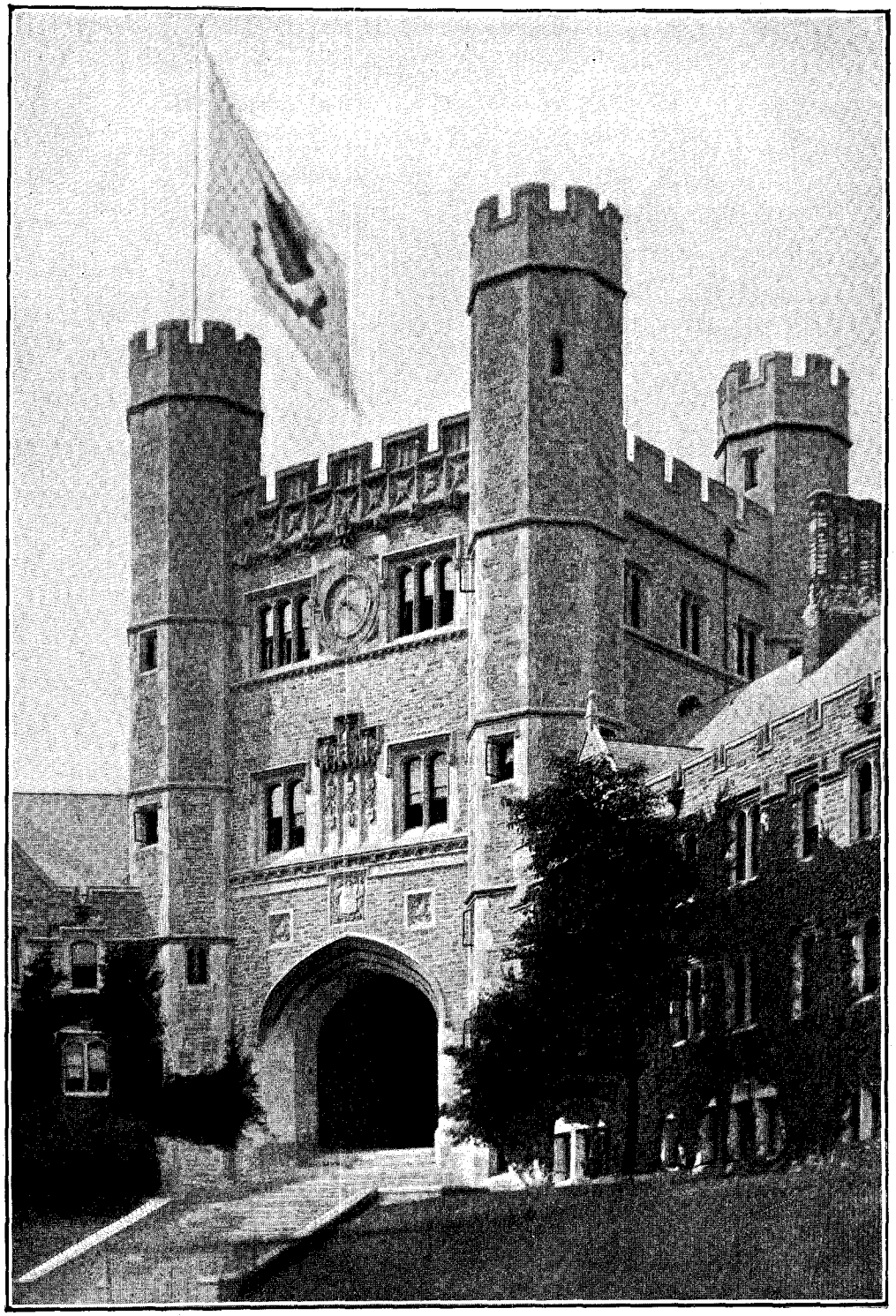

BLAIR HALL AT PRINCETON
Photographed for The Outlook by Arthur Hewitt.

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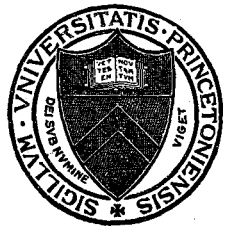
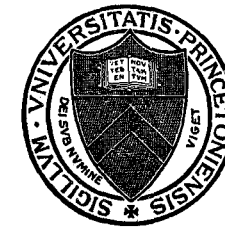
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY



THE KIND OF MEN WHO MADE IT



BY

ROBERT BRIDGES

MY first recollection of Princeton is of vivid terror at the entrance examination. I lay awake on Commencement night in a stuffy little room on Nassau Street, and, long after midnight, heard a group of seniors singing along the street, in a mournful way and as though they really meant it:

"We've gone out from our Alma Mater."

I tossed about and wondered whether I should ever get into the college, and, if I did, whether I should ever get to the end of four years, and have any love for the old place, and float along the street arm in arm with my comrades, singing of regret at the parting. It all seemed a romance that could never come true—and the way to it lay through the terror of an entrance examination, an inconceivable torture devised for the toughening of young men of sixteen.

That was a good many years ago, and it often seems to me that I have been living that romance ever since. The usual disillusionment of going back to an old haunt and finding it small or ugly, and the glamour gone, never happens at Princeton. It is one of the few places that has kept pace with our dreams. The good old face is always there, but, oh! the new garments and the gorgeous ornaments with which she decks herself for our home-coming! Probably it is because so many men are always dreaming of Princeton that the dreams come true. An alumnus walks across the campus in the moonlight and sees a castellated building rise out of the trees and the mist; and you go back in a few years and they say, "There is the New Library." And another sees a row of white Gothic buildings, and a multitude together see a new gymnasium, and they make the visions come true.

There are a host of Princeton men seeing these visions, and if you sit on the steps of Old North on a June evening and get confidential, you will hear whispers of them. And may be next year or the year after, when you go back, there, in unchanging stone, is the vision!

But there are many things at Princeton that can't be seen with the eye or touched with the hand. There is the memory of the distinguished scholars and the great men who devoted their lives to it. Among them all towers James McCosh. No one ever came in contact with him who did not feel his vigorous personality. It was not his scholarship that most impressed us, though we knew that among philosophers he had a distinguished place. Dr. McCosh gave the human touch to learning. He taught us the *efficiency* of knowledge when it was the tool of a big, strong man. When our class was under his teaching, he was midway in his presidency of twenty years. He was an old man, almost seventy, but we never thought of that. For us he was the virile representation of a great idea—Princeton College, that was to be Princeton University. To him it was "my college," and he felt and we knew that he was lifting it from an honored past into a great future. There he stood, a keen diplomat with no apparent tact, a conservative by race and tradition with the most advanced ideas of the scientists boiling in his brain, a book-delving philosopher who could have financed a railroad merger! He could be frank to the verge of bluntness, but he always had something up his sleeve—for Princeton. We never knew of his biggest schemes until they were accomplished; after that, reticence ceased to be a virtue.

It was his impatience with "muddle-headedness," his distrust of mere theory,

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his intense "scunner" at the vain imaginings of the dilettante in knowledge, that grew into the very fiber of his students. And yet he could write whole books on the theories of philosophers! The philosophy that did not help men to live effectively and die bravely was the target for his scorn. "I'll have none of it!" he would say, and we never forgot that distrust.

He wanted Princeton to have the material evidences of growth—new buildings, an imposing campus, a large body of students. But he wanted these merely as a means to an end, and that end was the firm foundation of a broad, advanced learning, that would produce scholars who could become efficient men, in all professions, in the life of the country.

While other clergymen and laymen were afraid of evolution, he was teaching it to boys. Probably the first man in the country to teach physiological psychology to his classes was McCosh. He had a chart on his blackboard, showing the localization of the senses as specified by Ferrier, at a time when it was considered to be bordering on gross materialism. And the eminent surgeons, biologists, brain specialists, and psychologists among his graduates owe to him their first inspiration.

What McCosh did for the intellectual life of Princeton, in brief, was:

To institute a system of fellowships which sent picked men abroad for special study, and brought many of them back to Princeton as teachers.

To introduce an elective system which yet preserved many of the old classical traditions.

To found and encourage graduate courses of study.

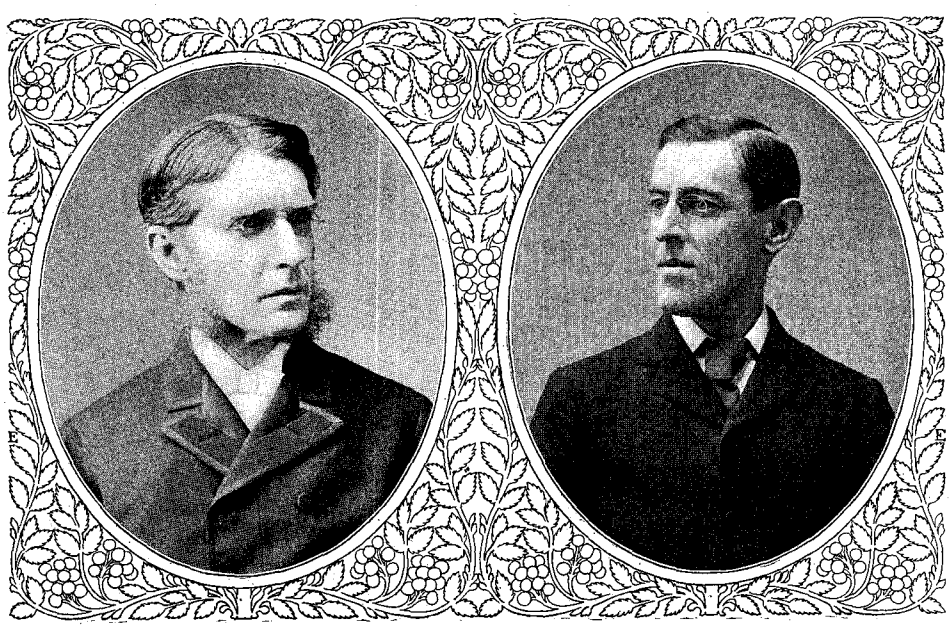
To found and encourage a school for the study of science in its advanced forms.

To divorce Princeton forever from the position of a merely sectarian college.

To set before the college vividly its ultimate destiny as a university.

When he deliberately laid down his task, though yet a strong man, and heartily approved of Dr. Patton as his successor, he still cherished it deeply in his heart, but dropped it absolutely as a man of action. "I allowed no one to meddle with me when I was President," he said, "and I won't meddle with Dr. Patton."

President Patton was thoroughly imbued with the Princeton idea when he took office. He knew the vision of McCosh and believed in it. For fourteen years he has developed it with increasing prosperity. Faster even than McCosh foresaw, the time came when with truth President Patton officially declared Princeton a University. Every year he added a body of scholarly young men to



FRANCIS L. PATTON WOODROW WILSON

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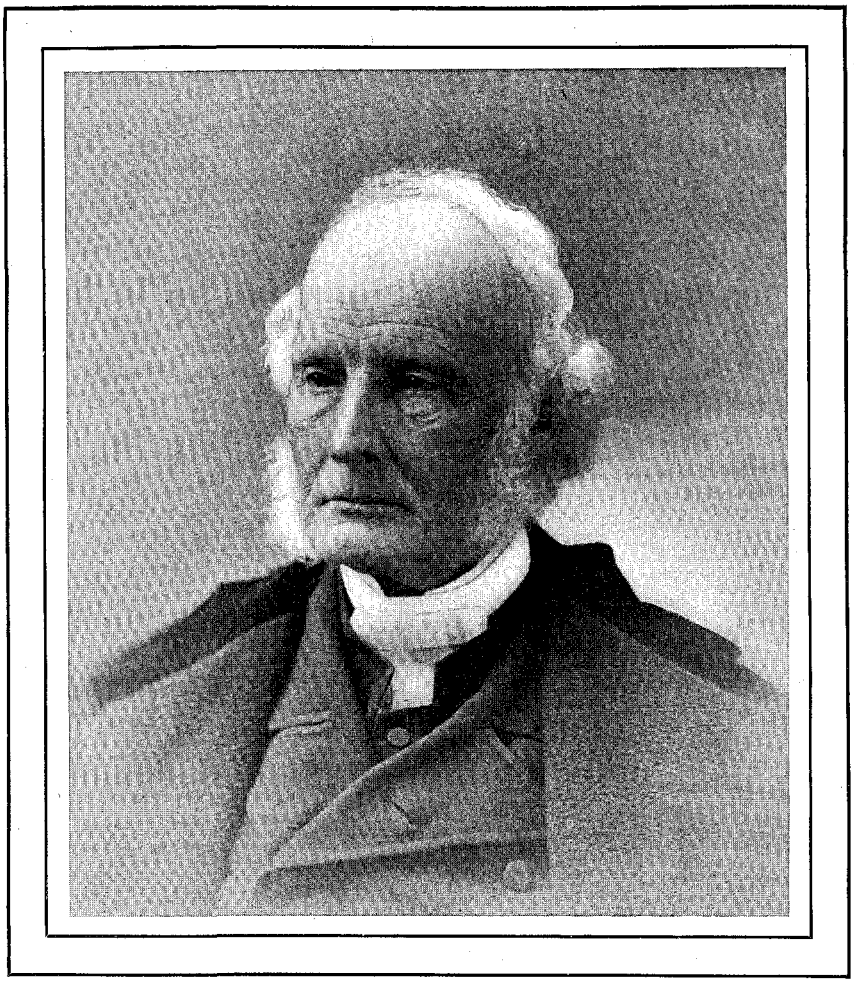

JAMES M'COSH

the teaching force—many of them those whom McCosh fondly called "my boys," full of pride at their scholarship and achievements in letters.

Dr. Patton encouraged the election of young Princeton men to the Board. They are men of action, men of thought, men of professional dignity, business men accustomed to carrying large responsibilities. Seldom is such a variety of career and ability found in a governing body. But they have one enthusiasm in common, one supreme idea—McCosh's idolatry for "my college," and Patton's scholarly development of that idea. However they may differ on many questions, when that final appeal is made they act together.

That is what they did a few weeks ago when President Patton said that the time had come to elect his successor. He and they never hesitated, but named unanimously Woodrow Wilson as the best man to carry on the "Princeton idea." The sacred torch neither flickered nor smoked, but was passed on at full blaze to the new runner in the race, while the old one stepped aside.

This enthusiasm for the college dominates the whole student body. It is a tradition, and the tradition is intensified, perhaps, by the fact that Princeton is a large college in a small town. The campus life is the university. It is a microcosm. It is home and school and native land in one. The beautiful campus and buildings, the spacious outlook, the nearness to cities where big things are being done, and yet the aloofness from it all, add intensity and varied color to the life. It is a fine setting for the game of life in youth.

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The young men themselves represent many phases of what is best in American life; Princeton is old enough to have sons and grandsons and great-great-grandsons to come back to the old hearthstone. Their forebears helped to make the Nation, North and South, Middle States and West. No section dominates it, all sections are there at home. The Civil War divided the college almost as evenly as it divided the country—and the college suffered as many years as the Nation in the reconstruction. Now the prosperity of the united country is mirrored in the strong, aggressive life of the student body. If there is more wealth at Princeton now, it is because the country is richer. If clubs form an important feature of the student life, it is because clubs have become a great factor in our National life. It is a huge, democratic body of students, and sporadic cases of luxury have little effect on it. The men are clean, healthy-minded, alert, progressive. One and all they love the college and what it stands for. The appeal to their honor and the honor of the University is always answered instantly and with enthusiasm. In the life at Princeton there is no place for a disloyal man.

They have their athletic heroes, but they are just as responsive to other heroes. When an ex-football captain carried wounded men under fire at Las Guasimas, they thrilled with it; and when two of their number died as martyrs in China, they held a memorial service and helped put up a tablet to their memory. They carry a victorious debating team on their shoulders with the same enthusiasm as a baseball team. They have literary clubs before which men of light and learning are glad to appear.

In short, they are a body of healthy, ambitious American boys who hope to be men, and believe that Princeton will aid them in the making.

Naturally, these same qualities appear in the alumni. Loyal enthusiasm characterizes them everywhere. They do not exhaust it in cheering. Princeton alumni believe in *organized work*. They have associations throughout the country, and these again are federated into a compact body which accomplishes things. They made up their minds that they ought to have alumni representation in the Board of Trustees, and they worked till they got it. They believed that a fund for general expenses would be a good thing for the college, and they raised it, and are raising it every year. They saw that a new gymnasium was a necessity, and that no man was ready to build it; so the alumni, as a body, went to work and raised nearly $250,000 for it. They wanted an organ to represent them, and they developed the "Princeton Alumni Weekly," and secured one of Princeton's brightest writers—Mr. Jesse Lynch Williams—to edit it. Every week the University is made known to the alumni by trained writers. The young graduates of Princeton want to meet each other in the great cities, and they have opened comfortable club-houses where they congregate. Nearly every class that returns to Princeton to celebrate an anniversary brings with it a valuable gift. They have erected statues and buildings, and founded scholarships and fellowships and professorships. Moreover, they have a way of quietly helping along those who are unfortunate among themselves. They make a great deal of noise on the occasion of athletic contests, but they do quiet, unceasing work for Princeton throughout the rest of the year. As Mr. James W. Alexander once said, "It does not cost much to be a student at Princeton, but it is very expensive to be a graduate."

And under Woodrow Wilson as President, the alumni of Princeton believe that their dreams will continue to come true. He is a product of the Princeton idea, and has been for years the interpreter of it to hundreds of the students and the alumni. They are proud that he represents so many other things; that he is a man of letters who has received the highest honors from other men of letters; that he is a scholar who has received tributes from scholars here and abroad; that he is a teacher who has instructed and inspired students in many institutions; that he is an orator who has charmed men in almost every vocation.

But what fills the alumni with greatest confidence is that Woodrow Wilson is a man of clear conviction, unbending courage, and serene moral enthusiasm.

Therefore they greet him as the fulfillment of another dream—a worthy President of the Princeton that they all love.

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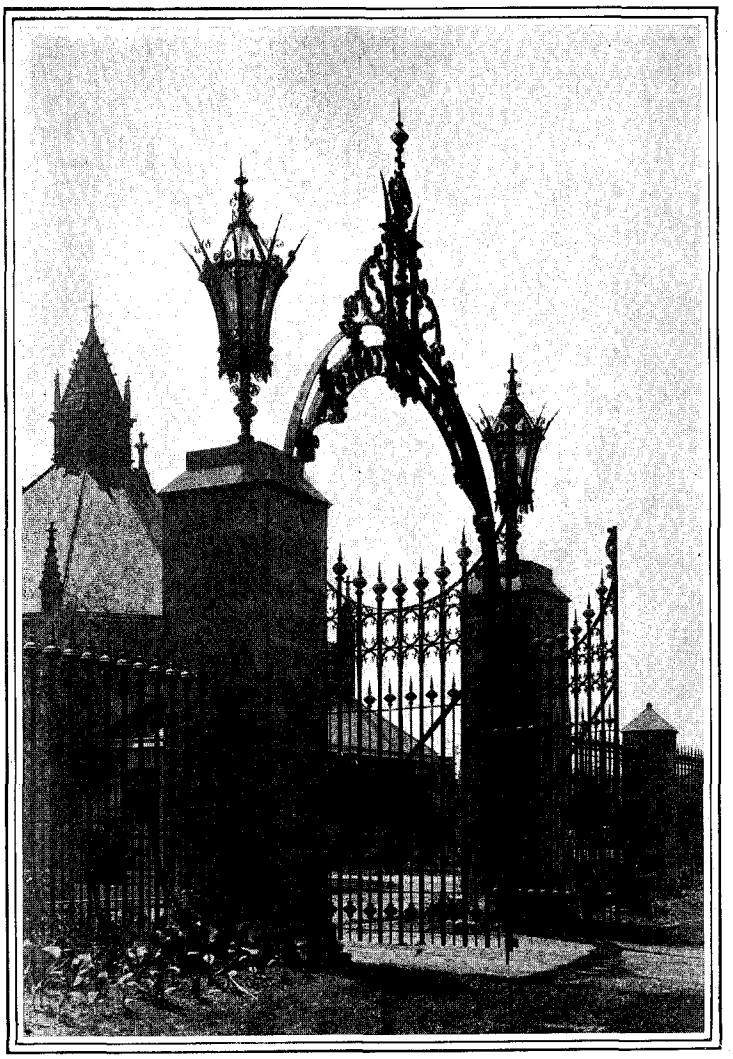
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

BY GEORGE E. VINCENT



HULL COURT GATE

INSTITUTIONS grow and are not made, is a saying of social science which at first glance seems to have been mocked by the university which began its work in Chicago in 1892. The public is struck chiefly by the quickness with which things have been brought to pass. Nor is this strange. On the prairie of twenty years ago stand to-day twenty massive buildings; two hundred instructors, gathered from many quarters, are teaching and guiding twenty-six hundred students; during the decade nearly twelve hundred bachelors, one hundred and fifty masters, and two hundred and thirty doctors of philosophy have been graduated; the University press has issued two hundred and fifty volumes, and is publishing ten scientific journals; sixteen and a quarter millions have been received; the current expenditures for the present year reach a million dollars. It is not easy to

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set all this forth in restrained speech. Western tongue and pen take kindly to spacious phrase and exuberant epithet. The University has not suffered from understatement. There are those who fancy that something more than half has been told.

But the thoughtful are not satisfied with figures, nor convinced by mere bigness and speed. Not how quickly nor how lavishly, but to what purpose have these things been done, is the vital question. Does this growth mean better teaching, larger truth, loftier ideals? Does it foster a spirit that is making better men and women, and giving promise of a higher National life? It is too early to formulate answers except in so far as these may be foreshadowed in the purposes, plans, and results of this first decade.

The new University was well planted. Chicago offers friendly soil. In spite of much money-getting, the leaders of Chicago are idealists. Their imaginations kindle quickly to generous purposes and large plans. They look back with wistful pride upon the fading vision of the "White City." The University was not reared in Chicago as a "settlement" in Philistia. Its founder and his counselors chose the city both as the capital of the Mississippi Valley and as a community ready to foster a university broadly conceived and liberally administered. The Northwestern University, several excellent professional schools, the Art Institute, three public libraries, the Field Columbian Museum, a symphony orchestra, a historical society, and many sustained efforts for social and civic betterment, are some of the forms in which the city's higher life has found expression. With few exceptions, the University buildings are the gifts of Chicago men and women; a third of all moneys has come from Chicago donors; a majority of the trustees are local citizens prominent in business and professional life.

But to assert that Chicago was hospitable to the University is not to deny the force of its founder's example, or to belittle the personal power of its President. A clever Chicagoan has described Dr. Harper as producing "a change of tissue in the brain of moneyed Chicago" and as setting up "a contagion of the financial corpuscles of its social being." This beneficent epidemic shows no signs of abatement, nor is there call for a specific anti-toxin. The President of the University understands the temper of the city. He dreams dreams which he knows how to interpret vividly to men and women who are won by large visions.

While we may agree with President Gilman that buildings are only the shell of a university, this analogy does not deny the value of material things. It merely lays stress on the leading purpose of the higher learning. The shell of the University of Chicago is worthy and dignified. The grounds—at first four city blocks, now more than doubled by frequent additions—lie on the north side of the Midway Plaisance, half-way between Washington Park to the west and Jackson Park to the east. All the buildings are of one architectural type—a late English Gothic, almost severely plain in the case of certain laboratories, nowhere ornate. This plan insures harmony, but does not forbid a considerable range of variation to individual buildings. Indiana limestone, soon darkened to a slate color by the smoky atmosphere, is the facing material throughout. All the roofs are of red tile. This color scheme is effective and gives a characteristic tone to the whole. A student song has seized upon this note:

"The City White has fled the earth,
But where the azure waters lie
A nobler city hath its birth,
The City Gray that ne'er shall die."

As the buildings are placed with reference to a final plan, a few may now seem isolated, and here and there unfinished. Gradually, however, groupings into courts and quadrangles are becoming more clearly defined. The advantage of such preordination is obvious. Historic growth is sacrificed, but at least the University of Chicago will never be a museum of curious architectural survivals.

One of the University buildings was banished from the city by the smoke. The Yerkes Observatory, with its famous forty-inch lens, crowns a hill overlooking Lake Geneva in southern Wisconsin. A little colony of professors, assistants, and graduate students live in the vicinity. All introductory work in astronomy, however, is done in Chicago.

It seems to be a popular notion that

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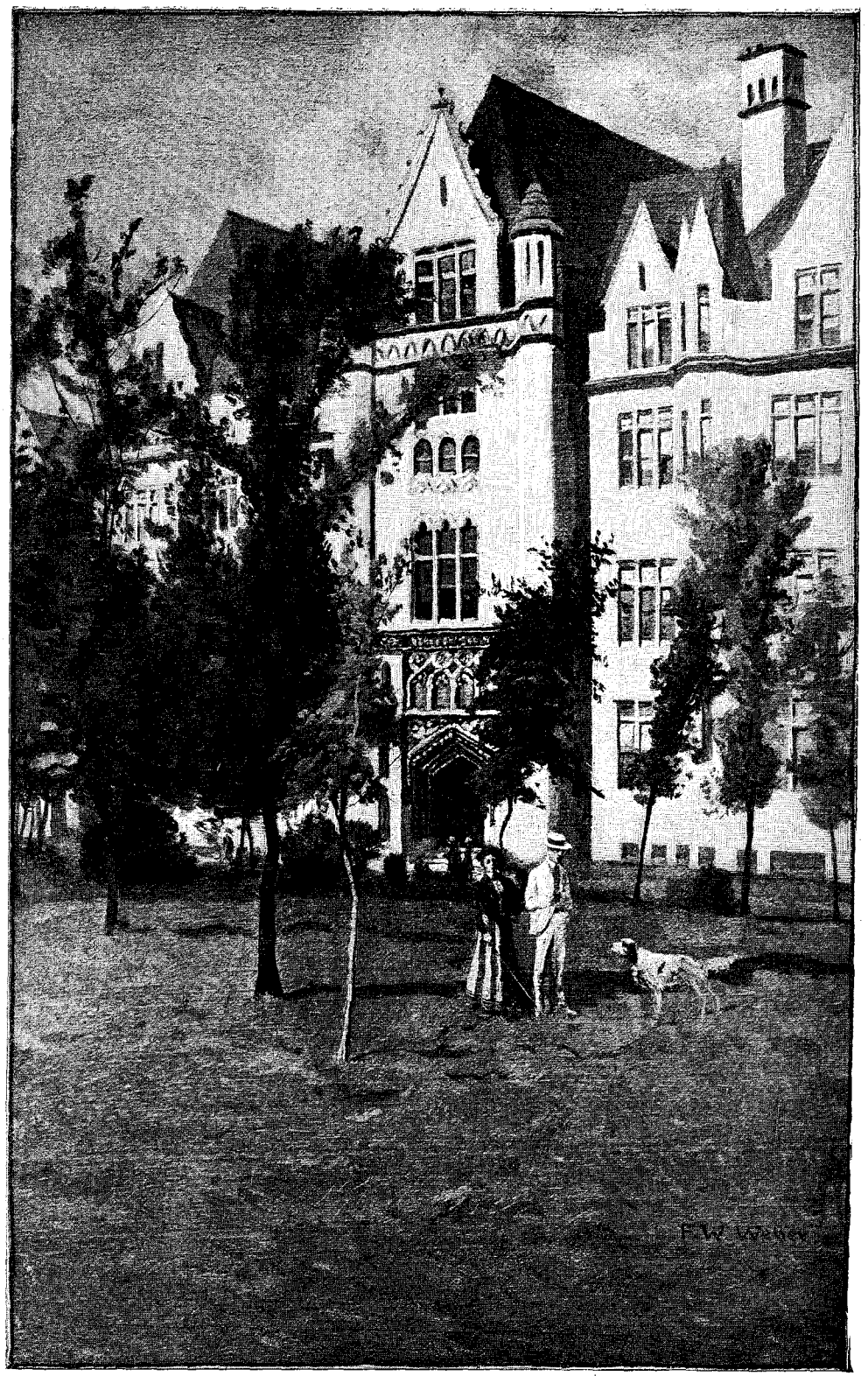

DRAWN BY F. W. WEBER

COBB HALL

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the founder of the University plays the part of a fairy godfather, and pours out gold with lavish hand. Fortunately, this is not true. Except in the first year or two, Mr. Rockefeller has given no buildings save a power-house and quarters for the press. Of his ten and a half millions, only one million has gone into dormitories. He believes that the average donor will give a building more readily than he will contribute to endowment. Mr. Rockefeller has, therefore, made his chief gifts to the general fund, adding generous sums for larger grounds, for necessary equipment, and towards the inevitable deficit. He has watched the growth of the institution so sympathetically that real and pressing needs have met with intelligent as well as generous response. To fancy, however, that money is to be had merely for the asking is seriously to misconceive the spirit and policy of the University's chief benefactor. Although he deems educational policy and professorial appointments to be wholly and solely functions of the president, trustees, and faculties, Mr. Rockefeller gives careful study to all general plans and the means suggested for carrying them out.

Of the sixteen and a quarter millions received since the founding in 1892, something more than five millions was given by men and women of Chicago, while nearly nine hundred thousand dollars were the gift of people living outside the city. Thus, of the total funds, nearly forty per cent. has come from persons other than the founder.

It is easy to see that the expenditure of a million dollars for the current year must involve a deficit over and above the revenues from invested funds and students' fees. As a matter of fact, this annual deficit, varying in amount from one hundred and fifty thousand to a quarter of a million dollars, has for some years been met by Mr. Rockefeller. If this were capitalized, it would represent an additional gift of from four million to six million dollars.

The University has been conscious from the first of certain limitations under which a new institution must begin its work. It has felt the lack of traditions. The effort to hasten their growth has now and then been almost pathetically humorous. A student song, "Old Haskell Door," was written and sung before the varnish was yet dry on that glistening portal. The enthusiastic support of a large body of alumni has been missed. The wholesale adoption of the graduates of the old Chicago University, which closed its doors in 1886, was a pleasant figment of continuity, but it could be little more. This absence of traditions has been sententiously harped upon by the critical. They have pointed out with somewhat wearisome iteration that money cannot purchase alumni, customs, loyalty, and ideals. Thus have the wise "elaborated the obvious."

Yet, as President Harper said recently, from the very outset the faculty was itself a complex of traditions. The men and women who were brought together from East and West and from oversea embodied divers customs, habits, and ideals. There were Harvard men and Yale men, men from Cornell, from Michigan and Wisconsin, from Johns Hopkins, from Berlin, Freiburg, and Leipsic, from Oxford and Cambridge. Every group, and in some sort every individual, stood for a peculiar conception of a university. Conflict between these forces was inevitable. The sons of Harvard praised the ways of Cambridge; the men from New Haven had much to say of the Yale spirit; the Hopkins doctors and the Germans were keen for research; the men of the Middle West were a bit impatient with what they deemed the conservatism of the East. It has been interesting to note the gradual fusing of these various elements as the faculty has "found itself" and a new corporate personality has struggled into being. Yet the Chicago spirit is only a new product of factors which are to be traced far back in the educational history of America and Europe.

One searching for traditional influences might ask, In what sense is Chicago a Baptist institution? It might be replied justly, In the same sense that Yale is Congregational, Harvard Unitarian, or Princeton Presbyterian. Two-thirds of the trustees and the President must be members of the Baptist Church. This is wholly an individual qualification. There is no official ecclesiastical control. The University's charter explicitly declares that no "religious test or particular religious profession" shall be applied either in the selection of instructors or the

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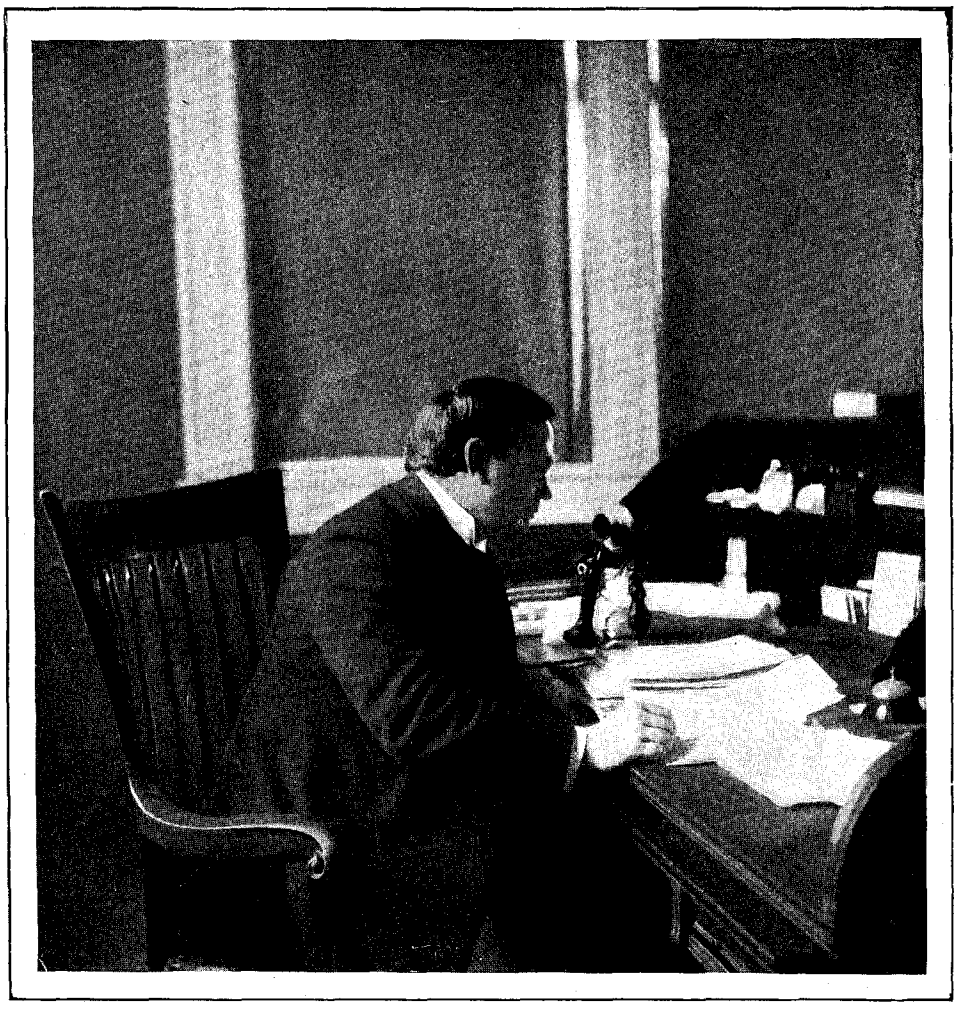

PHOTOGRAPH BY ALLEN AYRAULT GREEN

PRESIDENT HARPER IN HIS OFFICE

admission of students. In the first year of the institution seventeen per cent. of the faculty were members of the Baptist Church; in the present year this has fallen to ten per cent. The Divinity School was originally a Baptist Theological Seminary, and retains its denominational character.

Possibly the yearning for traditions has had something to do with the elaborate ceremonial of University public exercises. On state occasions cap and gown are donned by both faculty and students. The long procession of professors wearing bright hoods, spoil of academic victories, gives a bit of mediæval color to the somber modern city. This is only part, however, of a widespread tendency toward more elaborate university ceremonial, as witness the recent functions at Yale, Johns Hopkins, and Columbia.

An eagerness for "making history while you wait" might be discovered, too, in the quinquennial and decennial celebrations of the University. These were reckoned, not from the beginning of instruction in 1892, but from the first faculty appointments in 1891. The exercises were participated in by scholars of distinction in American and foreign universities. In connection with these anniversaries, the founder of the University made his only visits. Both celebrations helped to deepen the sense of corporate unity and to arouse pride and loyalty.

From the outset Chicago has stood for university as distinguished from college ideals. From the beginning gradu-

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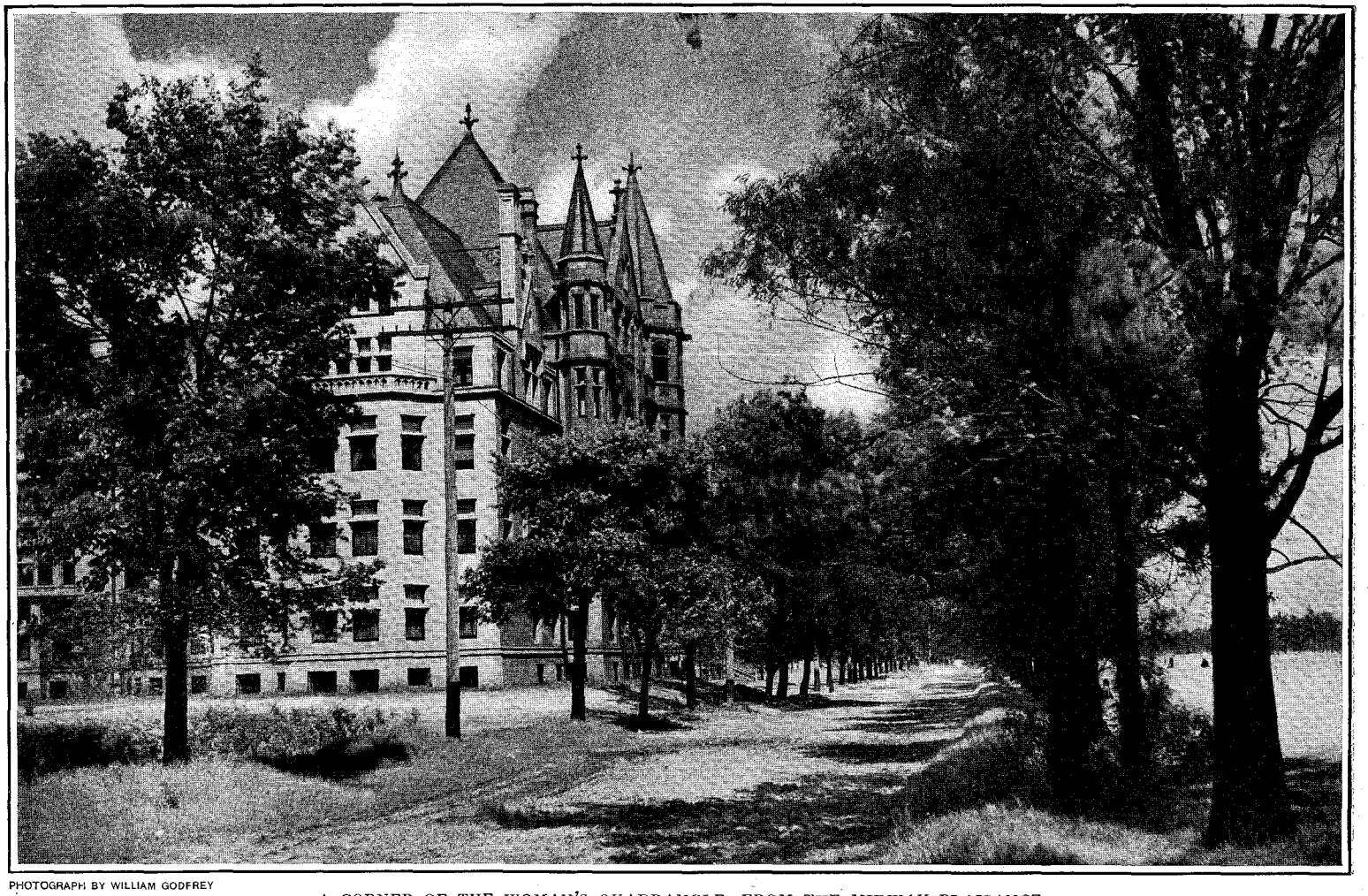

PHOTOGRAPH BY WILLIAM GODFREY

A CORNER OF THE WOMAN'S QUADRANGLE, FROM THE MIDWAY PLAISANCE

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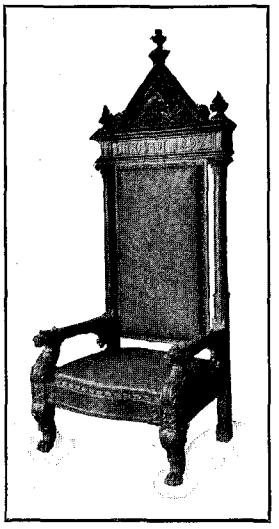
ate work has been emphasized. The University seeks to be, in Mr. Bryce's phrase, "a place where teaching which puts a man abreast of the fullest and most exact knowledge of the time is given in a range of subjects covering all the departments of intellectual life." More than this, the University aims to discover and to develop those special abilities which by original research may advance ever further the frontiers of science. With few exceptions, all the chief divisions of knowledge are given place at present. Yet much remains to be done in the broadening and enrichment of departments already established, and in the founding of professional schools. Through co-operation with Rush College, medical instruction on a university basis is being rapidly approached. The Divinity School includes in its curriculum many of the University's graduate courses. The School of Education co-operates with the Department of Education in providing professional training for teachers. The Law School now being organized will begin its work in the autumn. A School of Technology is planned for the immediate future. A course in Commerce and Administration is in existence, although hardly more than a beginning has been made in this new type of professional training.



THE NINETY-SEVEN CHAIR
Presented by the Class.

The University of Chicago stands for certain educational theories and methods which vary from the prevailing practice. One of these innovations is the so-called quarter system. The University is open to students throughout the year, in four sessions of approximately twelve weeks each. Students may enter at the beginning of any quarterly period and withdraw at its close. The system has been likened to a "merry-go-round" which every three months comes to a halt for a possible change of passengers. To be sure, the majority of students, influenced by custom, enter the first of October and leave at the end of June; but a large number avail themselves of the flexibility which this plan permits. Students who get on faster than their fellows may graduate in December instead of in June, or in exceptional cases they may win their degrees in three years. Others, whose preparation has been faulty, may spend the autumn in additional work, entering the University in January. The quarter system is also a boon to self-supporting students, who may drop out for any three months when money may be most easily earned. "I must work next quarter, but I'll be back the first of April," is a remark familiar to the deans. School-teachers find the summer quarter, together with the correspondence courses, a means of gaining, little by little, a coveted degree. Accumulating credit in this way, these ambitious teachers often leave their schools for a whole winter and complete a college course.

The summer quarter has a character of its own, although an increasing number of regular students remain for summer study. Instructors from other universities are added to the staff for this period. For example, during the coming summer more than twenty professors from foreign and American universities will teach in Chicago. This inter-university fellowship adds distinctly to the charm of this quarter. Every department of the University is well manned for the summer. Large numbers of high-school teachers and of professors in smaller colleges eagerly welcome this chance to pursue their special studies under expert guidance. As a stimulus to college and high-school work throughout the middle West and South, this "summer quarter" is full of deep meaning.

Another peculiarity of Chicago is the division of undergraduates into Senior and Junior Colleges, the former corresponding roughly to the third and fourth year of residence, the latter including what are known elsewhere as the freshman and sophomore years. This is done in the belief that the first two years belong with preparation rather than with university work. In Chicago a large part of the curriculum of the first two years is

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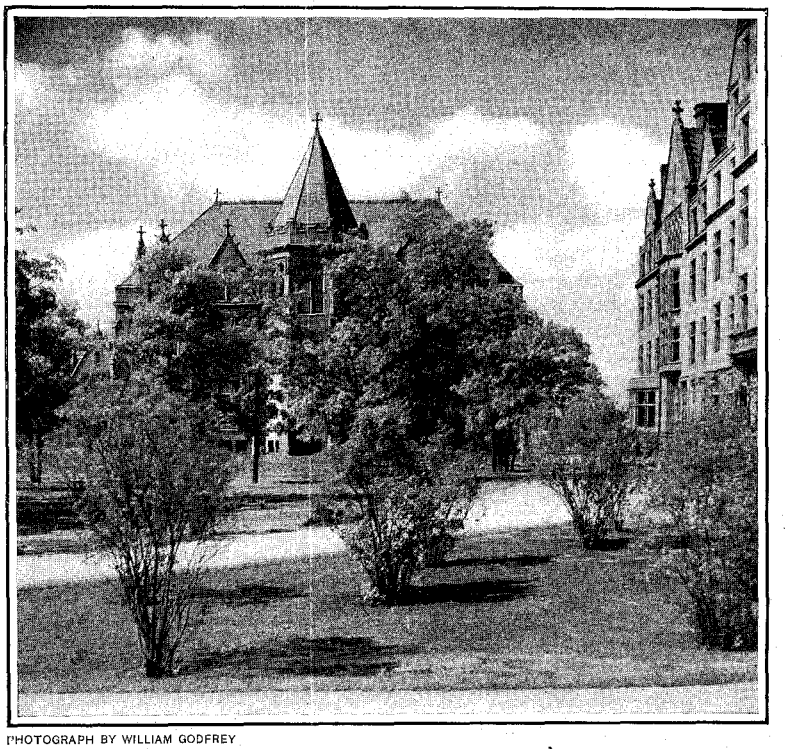
specified. The completion of the Junior College course is marked by the granting of the 'Title of Associate." Entrance into the Senior College is practically the beginning of elective work for the student.

This grouping of the first two college years with the high school or academy suggests interesting possibilities for the future of higher education. The smaller colleges can do the earlier work acceptably, but many are not able to offer higher instruction of the best kind. It may be, therefore, that many of these institutions will in time confine themselves to the first two college years, leaving to the university the higher work both before and after graduation. Already two institutes in co-operation with the University have adopted this practice. The possible lengthening of the high-school curriculum to a six years' course is another significant aspect of this plan.

Affiliation has been made a technical term by the University. It is also a jest in Chicago, where it is supposed to stand for a centralizing policy which seeks to organize an "educational trust." As a matter of fact, a number of smaller colleges have entered into relations with the University, so that interchanges of credit and special privileges establish a close co-operation. The plan is meant to strengthen the affiliated institutions and at the same time to give easier access to the higher courses of the University.

In founding its own academies, grammar and primary schools, Chicago is the second university in the country to offer under one control a continuous educational system from the kindergarten to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This system has not been at work long enough to show final results, although it is not too much to say that its influence on methods of elementary teaching is already of far-reaching importance. It will serve as a laboratory for those departments which concern themselves with the training of teachers.

The University of Chicago seeks close, sympathetic relationship with the community. Nearly five hundred students do their work regularly in the University College, which is housed in an office building in the heart of the city, six miles from the University grounds. But the definition of community has not been limited to the city of Chicago and its



PHOTOGRAPH BY WILLIAM GODFREY

WALKER MUSEUM AND A BIT OF THE WOMEN'S QUADRANGLE

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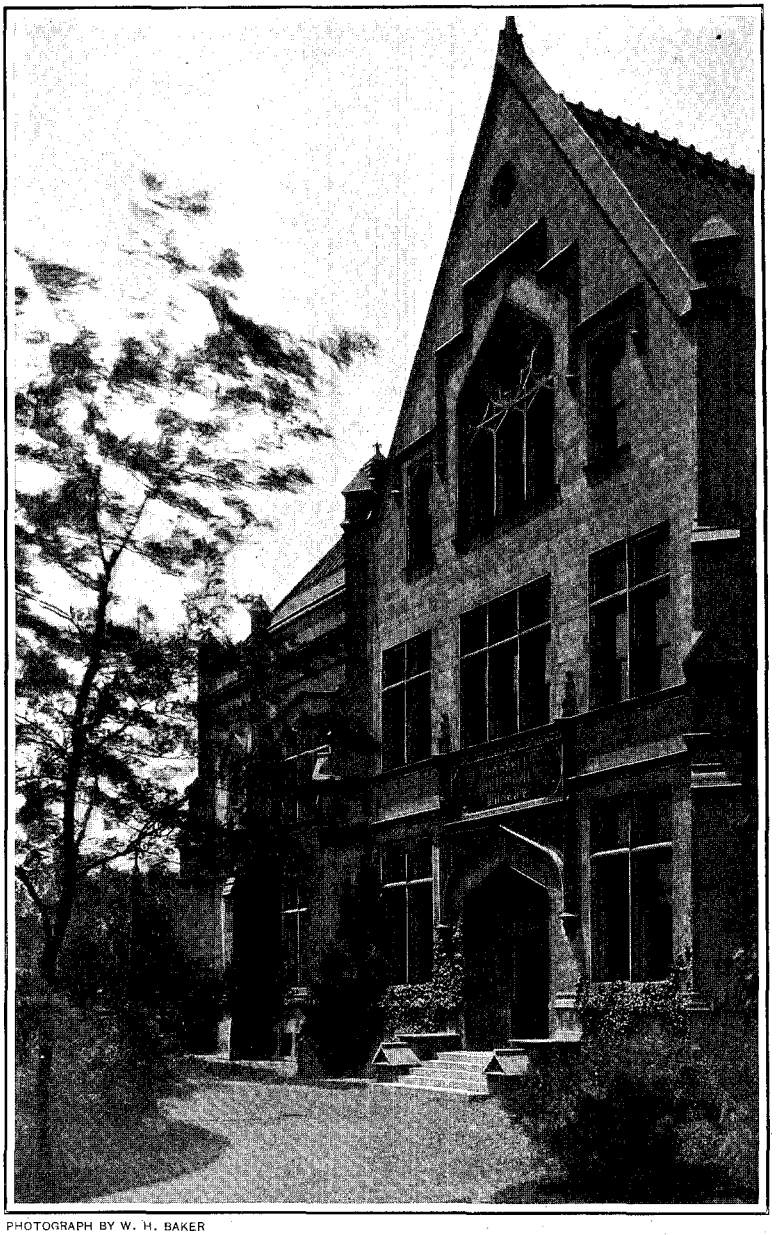

PHOTOGRAPH BY W. H. BAKER

ENTRANCE TO HASKELL MUSEUM

suburbs. There has been a systematic attempt to make the whole Middle West a parish. The summer quarter plays an important part by influencing hundreds of teachers. University Extension is an organic part of the institution. A special staff of lecturers is in the field during the autumn, winter, and early spring. Since last October one hundred and ninety-eight courses have been given, and about forty-five thousand people have been reached. These extension lecture-studies, with readings, syllabi, and classes, may, under certain restrictions, be credited towards a degree on the records of the University. But only in slight measure is this done. The chief service of University Extension is to diffuse the spirit of the higher education, to arouse ambition, to make parents covet for their children college and university training. The extension lecturer is not a drummer of literature,

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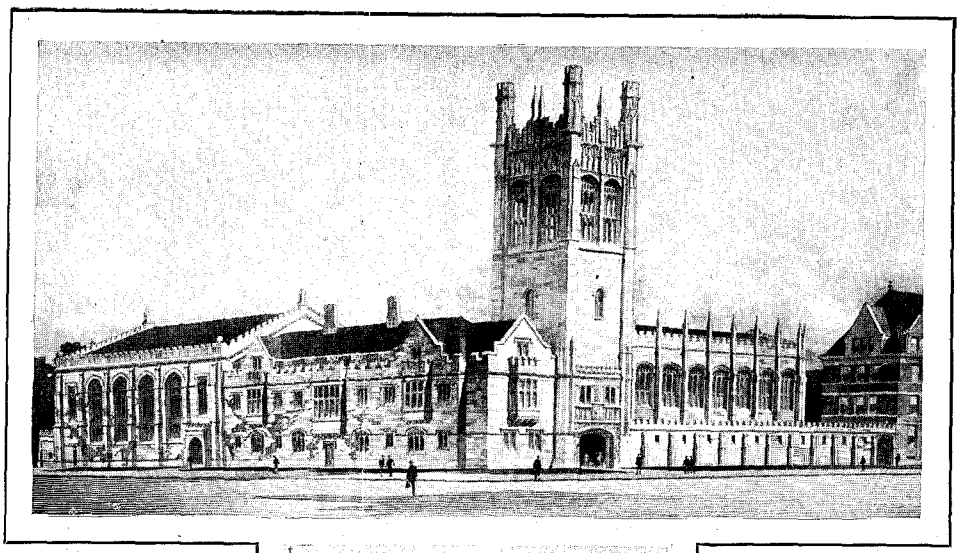
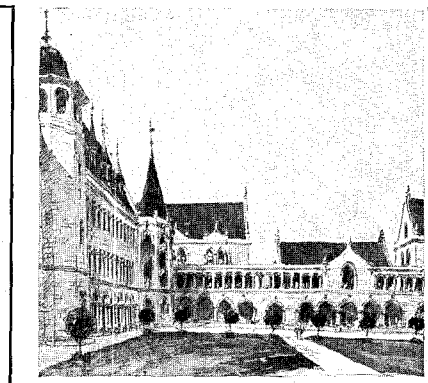


THE COMMONS AND MANDEL ASSEMBLY HALL



COLLEGIATE BUILDING COURTYARD

ory, and science; he is a prophet of the higher learning.

Through correspondence teaching the University reaches hundreds of isolated students. The instruction is limited to those departments in which such teaching has proved feasible. The University does not hesitate to give credit for certain work conducted by its own staff and tested by rigid examinations.

University men as speakers at teachers' institutes, as general lecturers, as school examiners, are traveling throughout the Middle West, creating a network of personal acquaintance which strengthens the influence of the institution. The spirit of the modern university is democratic. The old aristocratic caste system is more and more regarded as unworthy. In this democratic movement the University of Chicago seeks to have a sincere and important share.

The University Press stands for what is more and more clearly recognized as a proper university activity. Ten scientific journals, edited by members of the faculty, are issued by the press. The deficit involved in all such publication is deemed a legitimate charge upon endowment. A large number of books, monographs, and dissertations are also issued under the University's imprint. The Press has now in preparation twenty volumes, known as the Decennial Series, and designed to mark the first decade of the University's history. Two volumes will contain official reports; the others will include books and monographs representing the work of Chicago professors in the various fields of scholarship.

It has been said so often as to be a commonplace that book learning means less in the training for life than the spirit of a college. It is too early in the history of the University of Chicago clearly to portray the community spirit and ideals. One can only note certain things in a somewhat desultory fashion. City conditions have much the same effect upon Chicago as upon Columbia or Pennsylvania. Faculty and students are scattered over several square miles. This makes community life on a large scale difficult. The members of the faculty who live near the University naturally form a neighborhood group. A social club with house and grounds affords a center for the faculty, and there they are able to meet other

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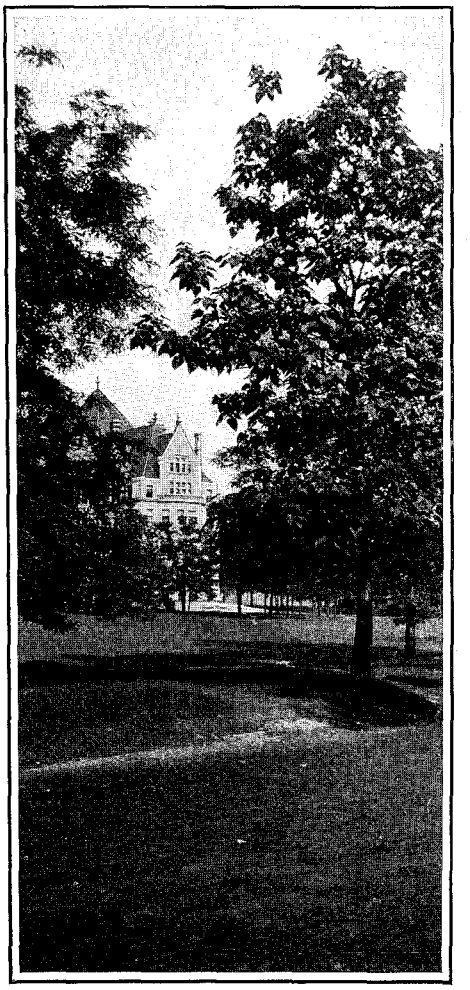
Chicago citizens with whom membership is shared.

The faculty is a democratic body. There has not been time enough, perhaps, for the forces of rank and seniority to do their appointed work. The members of the faculty are comparatively young men. The average age of the teaching staff at the present time falls a little below forty years. There was some fear at the outset that the rather complex foreordained scheme of academic ranks, with "head professors" at the summit, would create castes and foster dissensions. But there seems to be a general agreement that these things must not obtrude themselves in university society. The excellent practice of addressing men as *Mr.*, regardless of degree and title, is enforced by custom. The "head professors" not long ago decapitated themselves by a vote of the senate. They are now known as "professors and heads of departments."

It is not easy to sort the students into types, much less to strike an average. Earnestness and diligence are conspicuous. Few students come to Chicago because it is the fashion to go to college. The sons and daughters of the rich still tend, for the most part, to go Eastward. A large majority of Chicago students are present with a purpose, to which they hold with tenacity. Preparation in many cases is far from satisfactory, but there is no reason to believe that these conditions are peculiar to Chicago. There is little in the way of social distinctions. A large number are compelled to work their way through the course by the aid of scholarships and certain forms of compensated service which the University provides. Some kind of return, however, is exacted from all who receive either fellowships, scholarships, or remission of fees. The average annual student budget does not exceed $400 or $450.

Of the undergraduates, more than two-thirds live in Chicago and its suburbs. The graduate students come from a wider area. Fully half of the undergraduates resort to the University for the day; they are not drawn closely into its life; they belong to the neighborhoods in which they live. About two hundred men and an equal number of women room in dormitories on the University grounds. Nearly a hundred men live in fraternity houses, while other students find lodgings in the neighborhood. In these conditions it is not easy for a common life to develop, although much is hoped from the new Men's Club which next year will be handsomely housed on the University grounds, and from the Woman's Union which is already established in temporary quarters. Moreover, the quarter system does away with the old-time class group. True, a graduating class is organized, but this is too artificial to play much part in student life. Many of the efforts to create a University spirit have been to little purpose. The feeling that the growth of traditions must be hastened has led to a good deal of suggestion on the part of the University's faculty. This action by the faculty has been satirized in



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ACROSS THE CAMPUS TOWARDS FOSTER HALL

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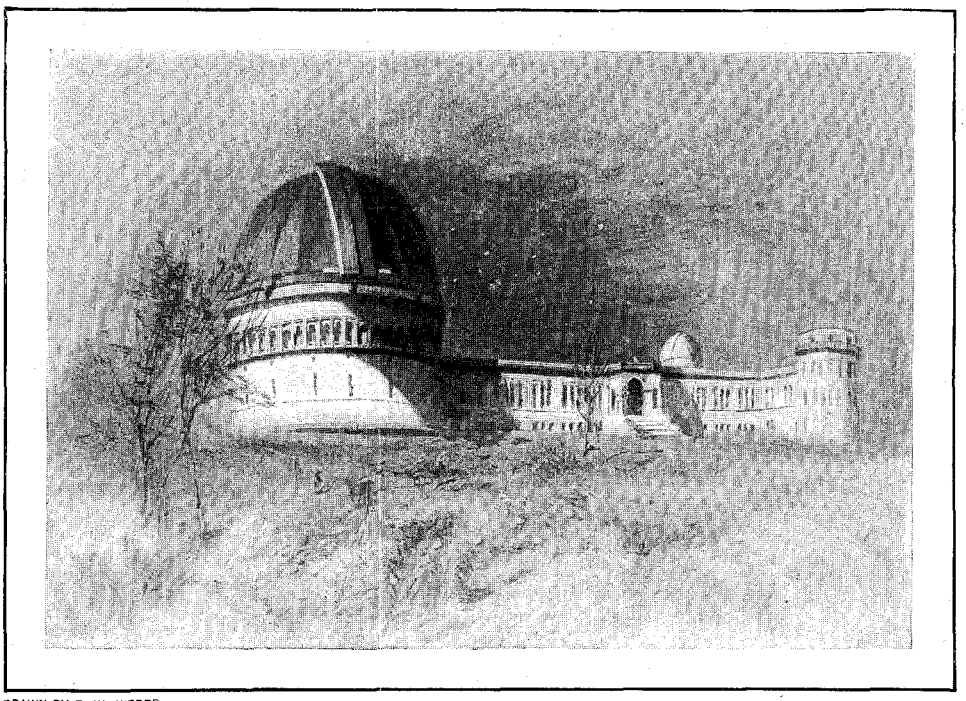

DRAWN BY F. W. WEBER

THE YERKES OBSERVATORY

a popular student ditty, which runs as follows:

"Our gifted faculties,
And our dignified trustees,
All make the student customs at the U."

In spite of this raillery, the relations between the faculty and the students are thoroughly sympathetic. To the Easterner there is something rather unusual in the freedom and democracy of this attitude. The professors are counted upon to support student enterprises. Their advice is constantly sought by the leaders of student undertakings. They appear as speakers at student mass-meetings. The athletics of the University are under the charge of a faculty committee. The Dramatic Club is supervised by the Department of Public Speaking. The Glee Club is subordinate to the University Director of Music. Probably in no other University does the teaching body have so much to do with student activities. This is an outgrowth of the peculiar conditions. Students and faculty are drawn together, and this is well. But this paternalism also tends to lessen undergraduate initiative. As the years pass there will doubtless be a gradual transfer of responsibility for certain things to the student body.

Among the men the Greek-letter societies have so far played an important part. They have pretty well avoided the narrow partisanship and petty strife which are the chief dangers of the fraternity system. It remains to be seen whether they can be absorbed successfully into the larger common life toward which the University aims.

The women who live on the grounds are grouped in four houses, with resident heads, common tables, and simple community organizations. These women's halls have done much for their residents and for the general social life of the University. The Monday afternoon receptions afford a natural and agreeable social intercourse in which both students and professors share. There are also several women's clubs which correspond in many ways to the fraternities, with two marked differences—they have no connection with women's clubs in other universities, and they have no separate club-houses in which members live apart from their fellow-students.

From the outset the University has offered instruction on equal terms to both men and women. The problems of co-education have been recognized and studied during ten years. Thanks largely to the wisdom of the deans of women, a

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rational, wholesome public opinion has governed the relations of the sexes. There has been a conspicuous absence of petty, annoying, mischief-making regulations. It has been assumed that both the women and the men are familiar with the usages of good society and may be expected to conform to them. It has taxed the ingenuity of an enterprising press to discover sensations at the University. The few episodes that have been exploited have served rather to emphasize than to impeach the sanity and good taste of the students.

Within the compass of an article like this the persons who have taken part in the upbuilding of the University may not be named. Exception must be made in one case, that of the President. His energy, enthusiasm, and sympathy are central forces in the institution. The students rally loyally to the support of his plans. They recognize him as a friend. They turn to him when they feel that they have had scant justice at the hands of their administrative officers. His appearance at student meetings is a signal for enthusiastic greeting.

President Harper sustains a peculiar relation to the University of Chicago. He has directed its growth from the outset. His ideas have largely molded it. His fertile inventiveness and tireless energy have brought things to pass. The glib folk who airily remark that anybody with millions at command could successfully organize a university are woefully astray. Millions are not intrusted to men of ordinary ability, nor could such men put them to effective use. The University of Chicago stands where it does to-day because an extraordinary man, gathering strong colleagues about him, has with them planned largely and won the confidence of generous men and women. But Dr. Harper is more than an administrator; from the pressure of official duties he finds relief in teaching and in research. It is too much to say that "an institution is but the lengthening shadow of a single man," but it is well within the facts to affirm that the University of Chicago will carry to remote posterity the mark of its first President's personality.

Chicago lives largely in the future. It is the fashion to say that only a beginning has been made. The things that are seem dwarfed by what is to be. This sense of the impending pervades the University life. A wit of the faculty was asked the other day how the institution fared. "I hardly know what to say," was the reply; "I left the grounds more than two hours ago." Since this article was begun, new gifts, not yet made public, have come to the University. There is good authority for saying that greater things are in store just now than at any other time in the last ten years.

Does not all this mean distraction? Does it not beget an arrogant pride? What becomes of academic calm and scholarly contemplation amid such bustle? Are not material things exalted while interests of the mind languish? One fancies questions like these coming from men who have known another kind of college life. Possibly the rush of events is now and then a little unsettling; it must be owned that there is a trace here and there of youthful self-consciousness, but, on the other hand, these rapid bounds bring a fine feeling of buoyancy and hope. Then, too, beneath all the show of material progress there is a sane and true valuation of means and ends. Money and buildings are not prized for themselves, but for their possibilities. High-minded scholars in laboratory and seminary are communicating to eager students "the thirst to know and understand," the passion for truth. Ideals of personal power for social service are exalted. Loyalty to an institution and its purposes is fostered in earnest young men and women. Problems of closer, more vital relation to the Nation are being pondered. The commonwealth of learning has gained a new member, ambitious to be strong and effective in a generous rivalry. The "Alma Mater" song of Chicago is more than a few well-turned verses. Her sons and daughters join in the chorus with quickened pulses:

"Her mighty learning we would tell,
  Tho' life is something more than lore;
She could not love her sons so well
  Loved she not truth and honor more.
We praise her breadth of charity,
Her faith that truth shall make men free,
That right shall live eternally.
  We praise our Alma Mater."

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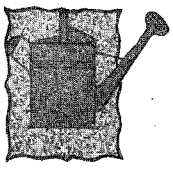
SCHOOL GARDENS

THEIR DEVELOPMENT AND FUNCTIONS

By DICK J. CROSBY

Office of Experiment Stations, United States Department of Agriculture



A SCHOOL GARDEN may be defined as a garden that performs some educational function in the school or schools with which it is connected. Gardens of this nature are found in all the more progressive countries of Europe, and are coming to be a feature in connection with some of our American schools. For convenience in discussion we may divide school gardens into three classes:

(1) The small garden belonging to the teacher or furnished by the school authorities for his use, which contains a few orchard trees and bush-fruits, a few kitchen vegetables, and, it may be, a few flowers and ornamental shrubs. Such a garden gives to the teacher a little needed exercise and recreation, and ekes out his small salary. To his pupils it becomes a means of instruction in the growth of plants, the habits of insects and birds, a place where they can learn to spade, plant, hoe, prune, and graft—a nature-study garden. Such gardens are common in Europe, especially in Prussia, where each rural school is provided with a house and garden for the schoolmaster. In America, for very obvious reasons, gardens of this kind are not found.

(2) The co-operative pupils' garden, similar to the teacher's garden in every respect, except that it is maintained primarily for the benefit of the pupils. It is found in many places in Europe, and is one of the two types found in this country. It is maintained by the government, the city, the school board, or even by voluntary contributions, but the pupils do part of the work, and feel that they have a sort of proprietary interest in the garden. It may vary in size from a single bed of flowers or shrubbery to a garden containing several acres and comprising plats of kitchen vegetables, forage plants, cereals, small fruits, and a number of orchard trees. It may be devoted exclusively to native ferns and wild flowers brought in by the pupils from near-by woods, or it may partake more of the nature of school-ground decoration—landscape gardening, if you please—and consist of a background of trees supported in front by shrubbery and

PRODUCTS OF THE DAYTON BOYS' GARDEN

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flowers, and flanked by vines trained over unsightly fences or outbuildings. Whatever else it may be, whatever its size, form, or function, it will come under our second classification if the pupils speak of it as theirs; if they help design, plant, and work it, and feel that nobody has a better right to it than they.

(3) A third type of garden, less common but possessing some features of greater educational value than the type we have just considered, is the garden in which each pupil is given control of a plat of ground. Gardens of this class are suitable for rural districts, factory towns and suburban communities where land is not too dear, but will always be in the minority in large cities, because of the relatively large areas they require. Forty boys and girls can work together on three or four plats five by twenty feet, but forty boys and girls with individual plats must have five times as much ground. Another disadvantage of the individual plat system is the fact that it does not lend itself to the realization of landscape effects. On the other hand, it is the system that best fixes personal responsibility and awakens the greatest personal interest. There is no chance to shirk responsibility. If any plat shows neglect, the teacher knows where to fix the blame; if another shows excellence in design or painstaking effort, the teacher knows where praise should be bestowed. And there is no denying that what is mine—mine to pick a few flowers from to adorn the teacher's desk, mine to raise from the seed a few heads of lettuce or a few radishes that I may carry home and proudly refer to at dinner-time as my lettuce, my radishes—there is no denying that a system embodying personal possession of a small garden plat by each pupil has many attractions not possessed by a co-operative system.

HISTORICAL SKETCH

School gardens of the three types mentioned are mostly modern institutions. No concerted movement for their establishment dates back more than thirty-five years. Aside from Germany, where two or three States gave encouragement to the establishment of school gardens over eighty years ago, Austria and Sweden were leaders in the movement and were practically contemporaneous in giving official encouragement to it. The Austrian Imperial School Law of March 14, 1869, prescribed that "where practicable, a garden and place for agricultural experiments shall be established at every rural school." In Sweden, seven months later, October 15, 1869, a royal circular was published which required school gardens averaging from seventy to eighty square yards to be appropriately laid out. In both countries the movement had rapid growth. In Austria the number of school gardens in 1898 was estimated to be over 18,000, and in some of the Austrian provinces there is not a school without a garden. In Sweden the number of school gardens in 1894 was 4,670. This number has diminished somewhat recently, as the result of greater importance being attached to manual training, but there are at the present time over 1,300 school gardens in the country.

In Belgium, since 1873, a law has been in force requiring that each school have a garden of at least 39½ square rods to be used in connection with instruction in botany, horticulture, and agriculture. In Switzerland an active campaign for the establishment of school gardens was begun in 1881 by the Swiss Agricultural Society, and about 1885 the Federal Government began to subsidize school gardens and to offer prizes for plans and essays on the subject. School gardens are maintained in connection with normal schools, and in that way the teachers receive special training, which enables them to make the best use of these important institutions. In both countries the influence of the movement is seen everywhere. In Belgium a remarkable impetus was given to vegetable gardening, a matter of great importance in this densely populated country. In Switzerland, according to a recent consular report, one can see flowers, vegetables, fruit trees, or shrubbery planted "on every foot of ground—on the front, sides, and rear of houses."[1]

In 1880 the French Ministry of Education decreed that such instruction shall be given in the normal schools as will enable their graduates to "carry to the elementary schools an exact knowledge of the soil, the means of improving it, the methods of cultivation, the management

[1] A. Lieberknecht, U. S. Special Consular Report, No. 20 (1900), p. 221.

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of a farm, of a garden, etc." There are now one hundred such normal schools, many of the graduates of which go to agricultural colleges for the more thorough training in agriculture and horticulture which will enable them to direct intelligently the school garden work in the elementary schools. Since 1887 no plan of a school building in the country, to which the State contributed support, has been accepted unless a garden was attached to it. As a result there are now in France over 28,000 primary or elementary schools with gardens attached.

The German Government has taken no official action regarding the establishment of school gardens, preferring rather to allow the different States to take the initiative. Notwithstanding this fact, there are a great many school gardens in the Empire, among them some of the best in the world, including not only the teachers' garden, which is a very common type in Germany, but also gardens that combine fruit-raising, the growing of flowers, and the raising of vegetables in individual plats by the different pupils. It is not an uncommon thing in German schools to find the master in the garden giving instruction to the boys while his wife is in the house teaching the girls to cook and sew. While it is true that the school garden movement has been of a local nature in Germany, it is also true that it here antedates the movement in any other European country. We find that in Schleswig-Holstein in 1814, and in Nassau in 1817, provision was made for instruction in the culture of fruits and vegetables in the rural schools. Instruction in agricultural subjects found a place in Prussian village schools in 1819, in those of Mecklenburg-Schwerin in 1827, in those of Wurtemburg, Bavaria, and other States at later dates; but the efforts in this direction were somewhat sporadic in nature, and it was not until early in the eighties that school gardens became common. One of the best things to be learned from German schools in this connection is that a great deal of attention is given to training teachers for their work in the school gardens.

Russia has made considerable progress toward the introduction of school gardens. The movement began in the seventies, but did not advance very rapidly until encouraged by the Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial Domains in 1887. At that time the Ministry began distributing plants and seeds, sending out expert gardeners to instruct teachers and to organize and direct garden operations, organizing courses of study in certain branches of agricultural science, and distributing implements, seeds, and books on gardening to some of the most energetic teachers. More recently the Czar has expressed his approval of the movement, and the Ministry of Public Instruction has co-operated with the Ministry of Agriculture and Imperial Domains in promoting the work. In 1897 Russia had nearly 8,000 school gardens, many of which contained also colonies of bees and silkworm hatcheries. For the purpose of training teachers for this work, short courses of instruction have been held during the spring and summer months since 1891.

In the other countries of Europe comparatively little has been done. Italy is just inaugurating the work; Great Britain and the Netherlands have a few gardens; but thoroughly organized effort in favor of them seems to be lacking. The same condition exists here in the United States, where school gardens were comparatively unknown until the matter was taken up by the Massachusetts Horticultural Society. At a meeting of that Society, held in 1890, the interest aroused by the reading of a paper entitled "Horticultural Education for Children"[1] resulted in the establishment of a school garden of native wild flowers in connection with the George Putnam School, Roxbury, in 1891. Since that time the Massachusetts Horticultural Society has offered every year premiums of fifteen, twelve, and ten dollars, respectively, for the three best school gardens entered for competition, and every year the first premium has been taken by the George Putnam School. The movement thus started has spread to other schools, until now we find school gardens in perhaps a score of our Central and Eastern cities and towns.

DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL GARDENS IN THE UNITED STATES

The George Putnam School Garden, thanks to the support of the Massachusetts

[1] Henry Lincoln Clapp, Master George Putnam School, Roxbury, Mass.

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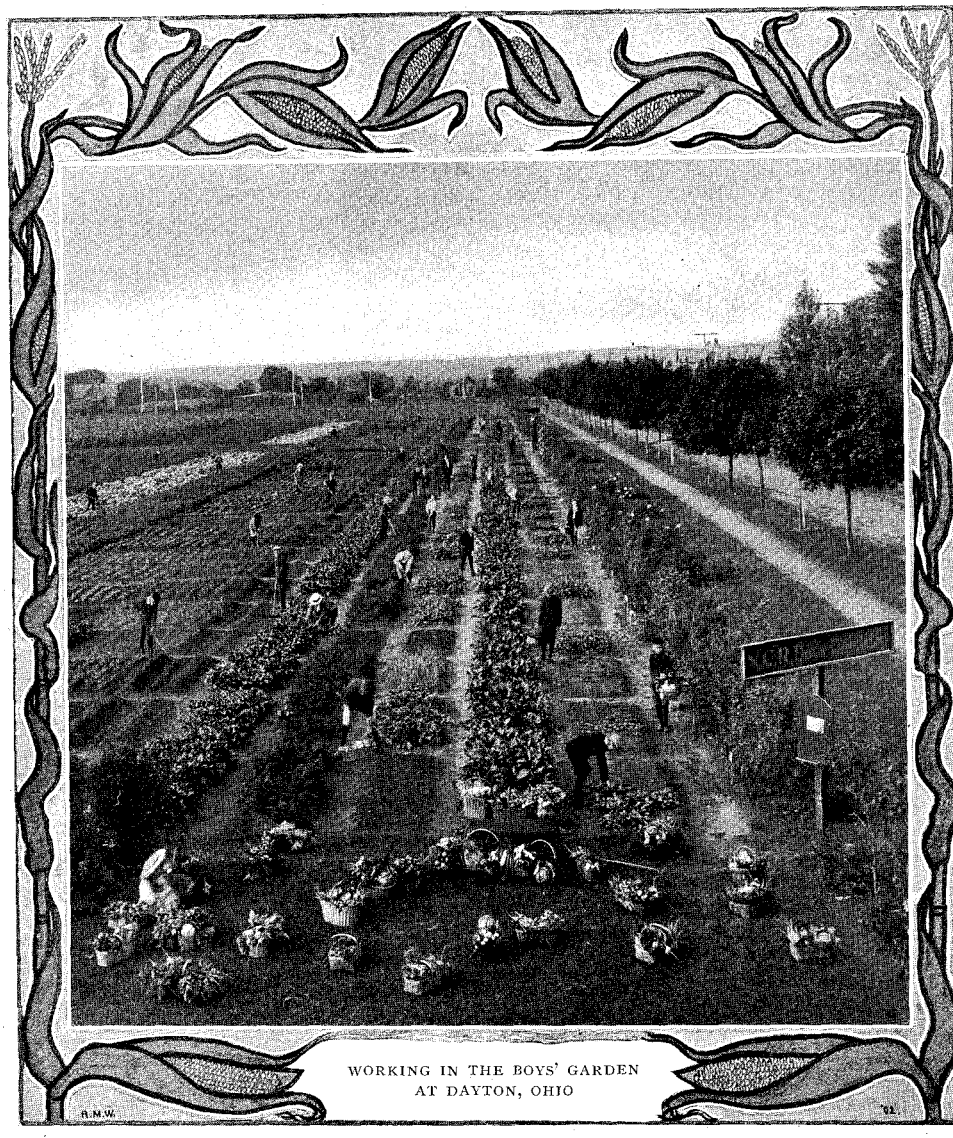

WORKING IN THE BOYS' GARDEN
AT DAYTON, OHIO

Horticultural Society and the intelligent management of a man familiar with work of this kind abroad, has been a success almost from the first; but many of the other ventures have had to meet and overcome serious difficulties. Parents, and in some cases school boards, have opposed the introduction of the so-called fads, or, what is worse, have been indifferent to appeals made to them for encouragement and support; but teachers and children have for the most part taken hold of the work with enthusiasm and have accomplished wonderful results. Brick, mortar, stones, and other rubbish have been carted away and have been replaced by rich soil, turf, and manure; wild flowers and ferns have been brought in from the woods; trees, vines, and shrubbery, purchased or donated, have been sent out; seeds have been brought from home or purchased with stray pennies, and literally the unsightly wilderness created by civilized man has been made to blossom as the rose.

In Massachusetts, Medford has three such school gardens wrested from an unwilling and perverse soil; Framingham and Hyannis have gardens in connection with State Normal practice schools; Wenham has five schools that began competing in 1899 for local garden prizes, the first prize going to a garden made by

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NORMAL SCHOOL GIRLS VISITING THE SCHOOL GARDENS

the children and their parents and friends "on a little plat of ground overgrown with tansy, neglected and desolate in the extreme."

Similar gardens have been started and similar difficulties overcome in Bath, Maine; Trenton, N. J.; St. Louis, Mo.; Louisville, Ky., and Rochester, N. Y. In Rochester four or five schools have undertaken school-ground improvement, and in spite of many discouragements have accomplished noteworthy results. They have been aided and in part directed by the Nature Study Bureau of Cornell University, which is also doing much in other parts of the State for the improvement of educational methods.

In Cleveland a movement similar to those already described, and yet not the same, was successfully inaugurated three years ago by the Home Gardening Association. In this instance, however, home gardens—the improvement of home grounds—was made the leading feature, and the improvement of school grounds was at first incidental. At present the work fostered by the Home Gardening Association comprises both these features and also kitchen-garden work for boys at the Goodrich House farm. Some idea of the popularity and growth of the movement can be obtained by comparing the number of penny packages of seeds sold to children last year and the year before. In 1900 over 48,800 such packages were sold, and in 1901 the number was over 121,000. This year more seeds have been sold than last year, notwithstanding the fact that many of the children raised their own seed.

The Omaha, Nebraska, city schools are just entering upon the school garden movement. Garden work begins in the kindergarten and extends through the eighth grade, and includes the growing of both flowers and vegetables. At Central Park the pupils have put in one acre of vegetables and have engaged to care for them all summer. The vegetables are to be sold and the proceeds used in procuring decorations for the school-rooms. Princeton, N. J., has also undertaken the work this year, and is trying a modification of the Cleveland plan.

In most of the schools mentioned thus far the co-operative element in garden work predominates—the children all work together. Of the gardens in which each pupil has a plat to plant and care for, there are but few examples in this country. One of the first successful efforts in this direction was that inaugurated by the National Cash Register Company, in Dayton, Ohio. For a number of years this company has been encouraging its employees to plant and otherwise improve their home grounds, and about three years ago the president of the company offered five prizes, aggregating $50, for the best vegetable gardens, the contest to be open to not more than forty boys ranging in age from eight to fifteen years. The experiment succeeded, and this year over seventy boys are proprietors of small gardens.

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Another garden containing individual plats is the kitchen-garden started at the George Putnam School in the spring of 1900. The model came from Germany. On a piece of land four rods square eighty-four pupils made eighty-four beds, each ten feet long and three and a half feet wide, and separated by paths fourteen inches wide. Here once a week the children worked, planting, weeding, and watering all sorts of garden vegetables, a few flowers, and some novelties including peanuts. The experiment was in every way a success, except that the children who left the city during the long summer vacation found their beds overgrown with weeds when they returned at the opening of school. This unfortunate condition the principal of the school has endeavored to remedy during the present season by reducing the number of plats and stipulating that those who undertake the growing of vegetables must pledge themselves to care for them throughout the season.

One other school garden I wish to mention, that of the Hartford, Conn., School of Horticulture. Last year for the first time thirty-four boys from the city schools were sent once a week to the School of Horticulture for garden work. Each had a plat to work, and he either cared for it throughout the season or he relinquished all claim to it and the plat was given one of the many boys on the waiting list. The experiment was such a great success that this year the School of Horticulture has provided school gardens for one hundred and sixty-three pupils, including a class of about fifteen girls who come out for work on Saturday afternoons.

Such, in brief, is the school garden movement. Now, what is it all for? What does it amount to? What is the function of the school garden in a rational scheme of education?

FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL GARDEN

The time was, not very long ago either, when the child, after spending five, six, or seven years at home in the joyful occupation of becoming acquainted with new truths through the exercise of his perceptive faculties, was suddenly put in school, and expected to give all his attention to books. Here, in a strange and unnatural environment, he received every encouragement to stop learning from nature and depend entirely upon a new agency for the acquirement of knowledge—namely, the printed page. Not flowers, birds, and insects in the bright, glad sunshine, but words—printed words—and miserable distorted pictures in the stuffy atmos-

A GERMAN SCHOOL GARDEN

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phere of the school-room! Before going to school the little fellow was learning new things every day, and was doing it unconsciously and without effort. Then, all at once, he was put in a stiff-backed seat, with his feet dangling several inches from the floor, and told to learn this and study that. What did the poor little fellow know about learning or studying?

The change was too great. It was unnatural. Do you wonder at the perplexity of the little girl who, upon being asked by her teacher, "How is it, my dear, that you do not understand this simple thing?" replied, with a perplexed look, "I do not know, indeed, but I sometimes think that I have so many things to learn that I have not time to understand."

Contrast with this the spirit of the boy mentioned in the following paragraph from Henry Lincoln Clapp's article "School Gardens:"[1]

> In a school garden properly conducted children become so deeply interested in accomplishing a certain, definite, near, and understandable result—the raising of flowers and vegetables—that they learn to work hard without being conscious of effort. That is a matter of the very highest importance in educating children. I said to a boy, who is one of the most indefatigable workers I ever saw, "Why, you are the hardest-working boy I know." "Yes," he said, "I know it; but it's fun, just the same."

If there were no other indorsement for the school garden than this—It makes hard work, "but it's fun, just the same"—it would yet be worthy an honored place in our educational system. It is the kind of hard work that takes children out-of-doors and makes them feel like whistling, and no amount of such work ever makes nervous wrecks.

The school garden movement is but a part of the general movement to get away from the pernicious all-book system of education back to nature—the nature-study movement. It furnishes the living, growing plant instead of the text-book description—truth instead of a fabrication of truth. It is especially valuable in the city, because city children have so few opportunities for observing nature at first hand. Instead, they are given imperfect drawings and cardboard models, from which they are expected to imagine the real things that they have never seen. This is hard work—dry, uninteresting, and unprofitable hard work; hard work that is not fun; hard work that makes wrinkles and nerves.

[1] "Education," 21: 522-530, 611-617.

The school garden should be found in connection with every kindergarten. The little fellows learning to recognize colors and geometrical forms should see also the more pleasing natural colors and forms. They should be given an opportunity to see how the plant gets out of the seed, how the stem pushes upward and the little leaves turn green, while the white root pushes down into the soil. They should plant a few seeds for themselves, and then water and care for the plants when they come up. Thus will they learn, and love to learn; thus will they get out in the pure air and sunshine.

Gardens should also be maintained in connection with the primary grades, the grammar grades, and even the high school, provided always that as the pupil grows older his tastes should be carefully observed, and some discretion exercised regarding the nature of the work given to him. The thought I wish to leave with you is that the school garden may be made to furnish subjects for study by pupils of all ages.

To quote the Rev. Thomas Hill,[1] formerly President of Harvard:

> The processes of planting, watering, weeding, loosening the surface, manuring (in the city with nitrate of ammonia), pruning, collecting the seed, etc., will furnish abundant opportunities for the most valuable incidental instruction concerning the dependence of man and animals upon plants; the uses of the atmosphere and rains; the right of man to remove plants when out of place; the ethical objection to a needless destruction of them; the nature of the dew and of evaporation; the arrangement of the leaves to catch the light, the necessity of light for green-leaved plants; the adaptation of different plants to different climates and situations; the various parts of plants used by man; the modes of increasing the yield and of arresting the deterioration of soils.

Here are truths that the pupil in the kindergarten will readily grasp, and problems that are to-day claiming the attention of mature minds in some of our best colleges and institutions for investigation; and, best of all, hard work and fun are to be had in studying them.

OPPORTUNITY FOR INDUSTRIAL TRAINING

The hard work, however, is mostly manual labor, and this brings us to a

[1] "The True Order of Studies," Thomas Hill. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

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GIRLS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL WEEDING THE GARDEN IN JUNE

BOYS AT MEDFORD, MASS., KEEPING THE SCHOOL LAWN IN CONDITION

consideration of the opportunity for industrial training afforded by school gardens. In this phase of the work, as in all others, much will depend upon the teacher. The alert and skillful teacher will find opportunity for giving many practical exercises in mensuration, including the use of the tape, garden line, and other tools in laying out rectangular, circular, and variously curved walks and beds; in performing the operations of pruning, budding, grafting, etc. In short, I am of the opinion that school garden work offers as many opportunities for industrial training as do courses in mechanical drawing, shop work, or domestic science; and it has the additional advantage of being done out-of-doors. I do not think it should supplant these other subjects, but it might well take their places in summer, when shops and kitchens are hot and unpleasant.

In this connection I would emphasize the fact that school gardens are not intended to create gardeners or farmers, but to afford the growing boy and girl an opportunity for a many-sided development. As the French Ministry of Education puts it, "The object of the course is not to teach the business of farming, but to study the phenomena of life and the conditions of its development, to inspire a love for the country, and to develop the natural tendencies of children to become interested in flowers, birds, etc." If one of the results of such training should be to check the rush from the farm to the city, if the children should be led to see that the country possesses many attractions that the city cannot have, all well and good; that would be another argument for school gardens.

OPPORTUNITY FOR ÆSTHETIC TRAINING

As a factor in school life for æsthetic training the school garden deserves more than a passing consideration. We are accustomed to think of the city as the home of art, but the city must go to nature—to trees, shrubs, and flowers; must imitate the ivy-grown stump, the vine-covered hedgerow, the overgrown fence-corner, the willow-fringed brook—for some of her highest achievements in art. Art is really only an imitation of nature. Why, then, in our effort to create a love for the beautiful, shall we not take nature as our model? In drawing, for example, put away many of our wooden and plaster models and let the pupil have leaves, flowers, and insects. We are not trying to create artists, but lovers of art, lovers of nature; not landscape gardeners, but lovers of the beautiful in landscape gardening. Teachers who have had experience with school gardens are almost unanimous in testifying to the good influence of the well-kept garden.

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WHAT ARE THEY? RAGWEEDS OR MARIGOLDS?

Children develop a feeling for the beautiful; they become neater in their habits, less troublesome, kindlier; they take pride in keeping the school-yard neat. And the influence extends beyond the school grounds to the homes. Children start home gardens, begin to adorn back yards, porches, and windows; the parents become interested, and the influence goes on and on—who knows how far? The homes of the pupils in Dayton, Cleveland, Rochester, and Boston bear unmistakable evidence of the influence of school gardens, and we have reason to believe that influences so potent for good in these cities would not be without good effects elsewhere.

RECAPITULATION

Let us summarize briefly. We find that the school garden movement began over eighty years ago, but has developed most rapidly during the last thirty-five years; that its principal growth has been in European countries, where we find at the present time nearly one hundred thousand school gardens. In this country the movement is of later origin, and has not yet developed to such proportions as in Europe. Nevertheless, there are in America successfully conducted gardens of such types as are suitable to our conditions. We find among educators a growing tendency to get away from book methods in the lower grades, and to substitute nature study, for which the school garden furnishes excellent material.

Just here I want to sound one note of warning for the teacher. Do not allow yourself to be stampeded. In your anxiety to keep in the front rank, do not undertake more than you have enthusiasm, training, and persistence to carry through. By enthusiasm I mean love for this particular kind of work—love of nature and outdoor work. Do you enjoy getting out in the woods—walking, not riding; do you take enough delight in a good garden and a well-kept yard to do the work yourself? Have you ever done these things? If not, before you attempt anything very elaborate in school garden work you need especially the second qualification mentioned—training. All European countries that are promoting this work provide training for the teachers who are to have charge of it. It is the right way to start. It is the way they are introducing nature study and agriculture into the rural schools of Missouri and Wisconsin. It is the way we shall start school gardens in Washington. Not all who start school gardens will be able to take a course of training, but all should weigh well the difficulties to be met and prepare to stand up under them.

Finally, there is that other most important quality—persistence. It is largely a matter of persistence, after all. Start your garden and then stick to it. If it is nothing more than a little bed of ferns and wild flowers, use it and take care of it. Do not let it grow up to weeds during the summer vacation. Already there are

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too many neglected farms. We see and hear of them all over this country. Do not set examples of neglect, and do not tolerate in your pupils habits that will lead to shiftlessness and to more neglected farms. I believe in school gardens, and I believe that, properly conducted, they will develop in children a love for nature and outdoor pursuits, a better appreciation of the beautiful in nature. I believe that the trend of their influence is toward the broader and fuller development of all the child's faculties.

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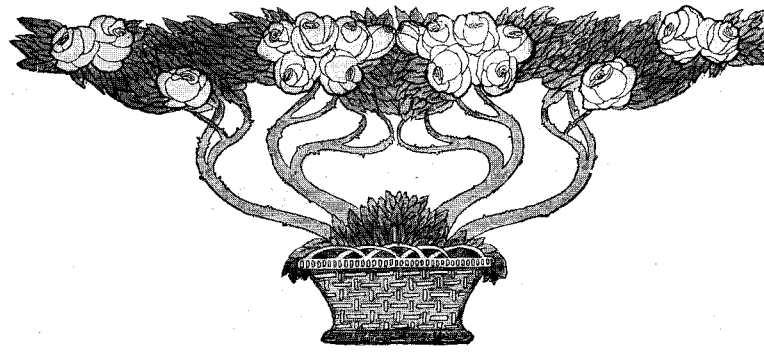

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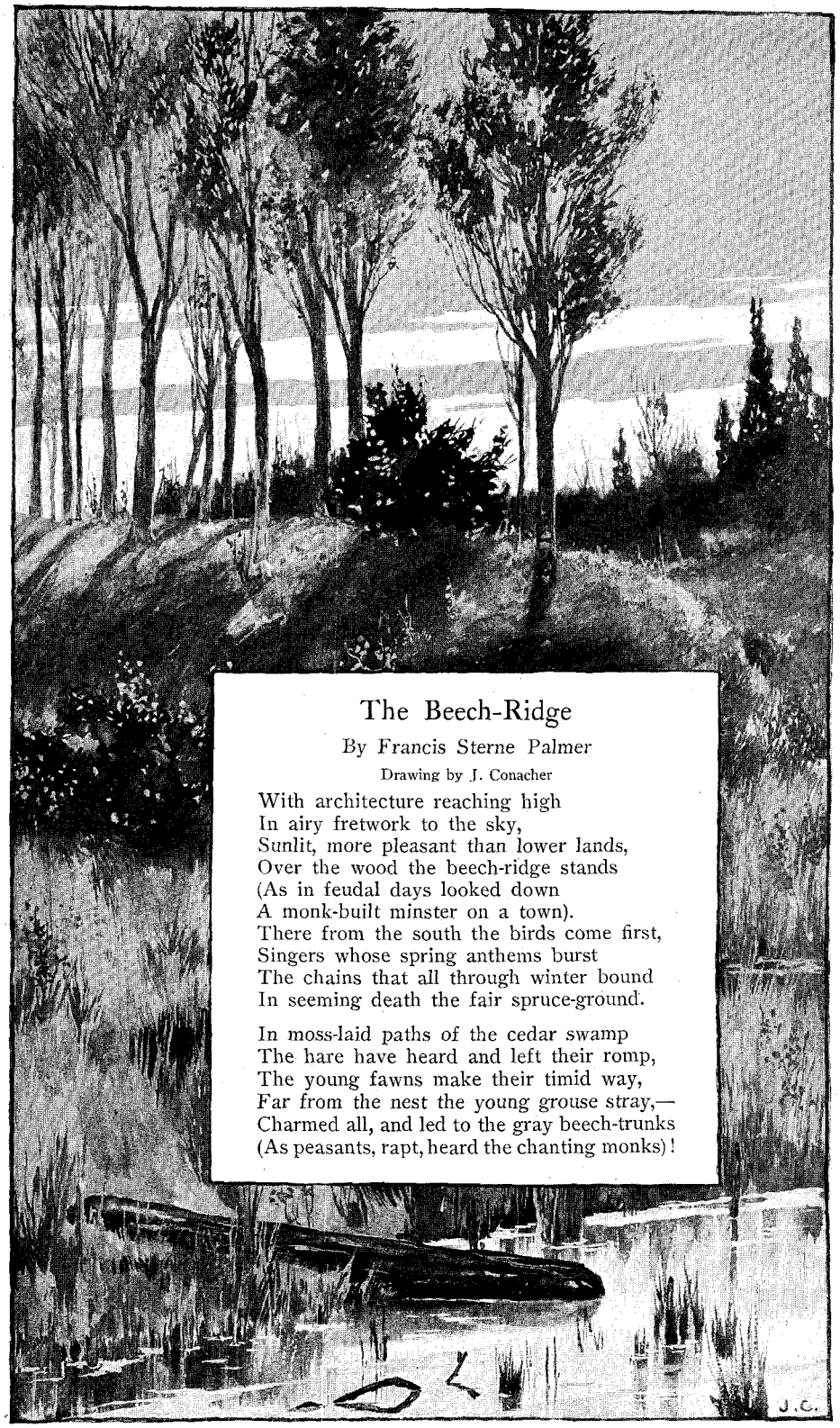

The Beech-Ridge

By Francis Sterne Palmer

Drawing by J. Conacher

With architecture reaching high
In airy fretwork to the sky,
Sunlit, more pleasant than lower lands,
Over the wood the beech-ridge stands
(As in feudal days looked down
A monk-built minster on a town).
There from the south the birds come first,
Singers whose spring anthems burst
The chains that all through winter bound
In seeming death the fair spruce-ground.

In moss-laid paths of the cedar swamp
The hare have heard and left their romp,
The young fawns make their timid way,
Far from the nest the young grouse stray,—
Charmed all, and led to the gray beech-trunks
(As peasants, rapt, heard the chanting monks)!

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Memories of a Hundred Years[1]

By Edward Everett Hale

X.

SEVENTY YEARS

ANY fond hope which I may have had, when the kind reader and I began on these papers, that we could condense into twelve articles of The Outlook any series of such reminiscences as we have written, has already been sadly abandoned.

How can we treat this hustling, jostling, bustling half-century which we have seen with our eyes, as we did that half-century of myth and tradition which our forefathers lived in?

There is so much of it, so much of invention, so much of discovery, such miracles in religion, such marvels in politics!

The reign of God is so much closer!

Why, in 1830, Corliss took out his first patent for the Cut-off. That one man added fifteen per cent. to the working power of the human race by that invention. Will a score or two of historians write that out for us?

And then we will be ready to trace out what has followed on gutta-percha, or Grove's sustaining battery, or the spectroscope, and a thousand other such trifles.

So far as this reader and I are concerned, from this time forward we must make only a selection from the great range of subjects which belong in the study of the miraculous change of the world in the last century.

That matter of internal improvement, touched upon only too briefly in the chapter for May, is an illustration of the change wrought by work in one direction. There are hundreds of others which any one who reads with any system ought to follow out, if he really means to comprehend the difference between his own life and his grandfather's. Thus, in 1801 there was a very considerable maritime commerce. We built the best ships in the world from as good ship timber as there was in the world. Before this—in the Revolution, in the sea fights of Lord Howe and D'Estaing and Paul Jones and the Spanish captains—the spars in every ship built by either of the four nations were spars from the forests of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, or New York. I have seen men who had seen pine-trees in the New Hampshire woods which still bore King George's broad arrow. This was the sign that they were selected for the King's Navy.

The people who built ships with such advantages could man them with the best seamen in the world—the descendants of Danes and Norwegians, men whose ancestors had been trained since the Cabots' time, at least, in the fog-banks and among the icebergs of the fisheries.

And there were, thank God! enough of such men. New England had more such men fighting King George upon the ocean in 1780 and 1781 than King George had on the same ocean fighting New England. The ocean commerce, for which such men were bred, consisted in 1801 in the exportation to Europe of furs, hides, potash, tobacco, timber, and other forest productions; and to the West Indies of almost every article of agricultural produce. In return, these ships brought back almost all the manufactured articles which America needed. Thus the steam-engine which Fulton placed in the Clermont was made by Watt and Boulton in England. We were beginning also to sell the "notions" of our seaboard, with only too much of the rum which we made from West India molasses, to the redskins on the Pacific. They gave us in return the otter-skins and beaver-skins and sables which we carried across to the mandarins of China, from whom we brought teas and silks and chinaware and the other wonders of the East. But long before the century ended, Cotton had asserted itself as king; we were no longer importing our nankeens and calicoes and muslins and other textiles with Chinese or Sanscrit names.

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We were sending our long-cloths to Canton and our bales of cotton over all the world. The great three-deckers which carried out our cotton to England were fitted for the return with the partitions for families and the berths for bedding which should meet the needs of five million people who had to leave the old hemisphere for the new.

The introduction of home manufacture and the creation of machinery dependent on home manufacture and the railway system make up another of the revolutions of the century. The emigration from east to west, frowned on by Brahmins and Pundits, but insisted on by the determined sagacity of the People, is another of these revolutions.

And at the heart of such physical changes there were advances in intellectual training, in morals, and of course in social order. Take the higher education of women. At the beginning of the century the Moravian School at Bethlehem, in Pennsylvania, was the only school in America from which young women were sent for any considerable distance for intellectual improvement. And in the public-school system of the country, so far as there was any such system, girls had not even the poor chance which boys had.

But it is idle even to make a catalogue of visible changes in social order which have taken place in the last two generations—I will not say even three. Let me take only the least instances of all, of advances which ought to be touched upon and cannot be. Take the history of the chemical match. In the year 1782 William Franklin, in Paris, wrote to the chemists who had sold him chemical matches for fire that he would like to show some friends the new chemical match. They replied on the first of October: "We have sent for some phosphoric matches, but Monsieur Detopierre had none made. We have one which we send you. . . . To-morrow we shall have more, and if you need to send to us, we will send you a dozen."

It is an interesting thing to look back on a day when there was but one chemical match in Paris. But as late as 1828 I and my brother introduced the chemical match into the ménage of my father's family. Until that time the old-fashioned tinder-box, a machine which I cannot buy in Boston to-day, presided on the mantelpiece in our kitchen. We boys introduced what were called phosphorus matches. We bought them at the apothecaries, giving twenty-five cents for a case. You dipped the match, which was made of chlorate of potash, into a sponge which was charged with phosphoric acid. Think of the new light which has come to every household in America in the seventy-four years that have passed since! And let some young man who has five years before him, in his history of the century, give an account of the introduction of the friction match and of the thousands on thousands of years which it has saved to the human family.

The friction match, then, ought to make one chapter in these memoirs. But there are a thousand other advances of more importance, and we must pass them all by. The Temperance Reform is one; the whole history of emigration from Europe is another; the opening up of the West is another; the whole system of manufacture is another; the development of the treasures which the good God left scattered around loose in the shape of metals is another; and I might go on, literally with a thousand more.

All of these changes were dominated by the assertion of the moral laws. Man is nearer to God, and he knows better how near God is to him, than he knew in the year 1801. Man knows that God loves him. The fable of total depravity has gone where it belongs, and man does not pretend even to believe that he is a child of the devil. With this great discovery the whole of life is changed. There are new heavens and there is a new earth.

For the remaining numbers of this series, then, I am to select only three or four steps of the progress which God's children have made in America. I shall select them merely as my own personal life illustrates them. And it is almost of course that the first of these steps, however briefly it is spoken of, should be the advance which the country made in the abolition of slavery. This is a business which began with seriousness in the debates on the Missouri Compromise in 1819. It is a business, also, which is not finished yet. But let us hope that, with the new Commission of Education, with the triumphs, really miraculous, of Hampton and Calhoun and Tuskegee, we need not give up the game. With

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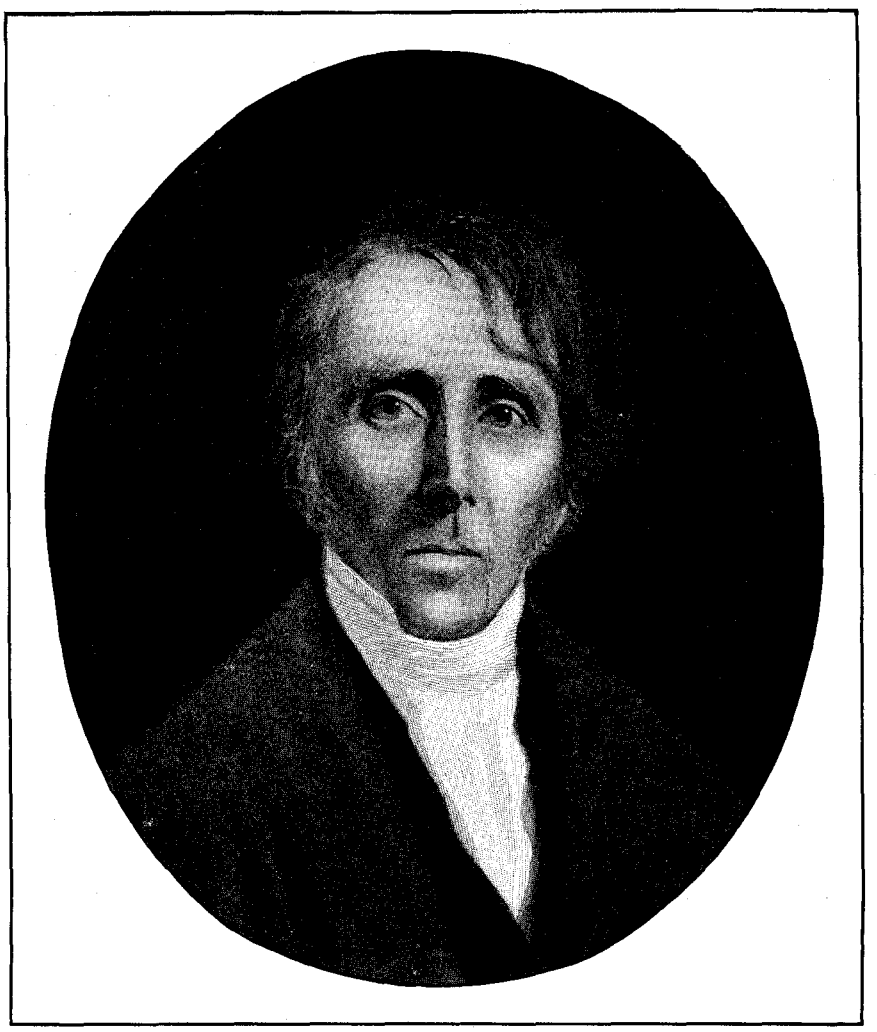

WILLIAM ELLERY CHANNING

From the portrait by Gambardella owned by Mr. F. J. Garrison, of Boston.

such triumphs to reassure us, we may look forward and not back.

ABOLITION OF SLAVERY

I hope the reader does not expect any connected sketch of the history of that great tide of feeling which resulted in the political emancipation of the negroes, more than he expects a connected history of internal improvements, of changes of commerce, of the development of agriculture, of the revolutions in science, of the systems of education, of the administration of charities, or, wrought in with all these, of the enlargement of the Nation's religion.

But I bring together a very few notes and a few personal recollections to serve as what I call "broken lights" which to a certain extent illustrate conditions which are often misunderstood.

There seems to have been, when the century began, an indifference, which is now curious, as to the critical and universal importance of a radical solution of all the questions regarding slavery. I have already said that I have found no writer who at that time regarded the matter of slavery as indicating the cleavage line between North and South. Gouverneur Morris, whom I have cited, spoke of the antagonism as that between five oligarchies and eight republics. The distinction is absolutely correct, but he does not refer in form to slavery, out of which the oligarchies were created. In the critical election of 1801 Jefferson was the South-

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HARRIET BEECHER STOWE

ern candidate and Burr the Northern. But Burr, until he died, never cared a straw for slavery, while Jefferson at that time would have been called an anti-slavery man.

In a measure, this indifference may be referred to the outside fact that there were still a few slaves in most of the Northern States. In Rhode Island, and perhaps one might say in Pennsylvania, there were so many as to incline the people of those States against entering on any radical projects for abolition. In Philadelphia, however, there did exist the strong repugnance of the Quakers to slavery, a repugnance which from an early time had shown itself in public "testimonies" and in the habits of domestic life.

For some reason there certainly was a general indifference to the subject, which, as I have said, seems curious when we think of the catastrophes which have followed. We look back now on slavery and its consequences as involving a terrible war, and conditions of social life which carry with them our most dangerous problems. But for the first twenty years of the century the discussion may be called purely academic, and indeed it hardly assumes that importance. To my own mind the real distinction of the great anti-slavery agitators of the beginning is that they forecast the future truly. Even now I do not see that any of them can make any other claim to statesmanship. It seems fair to say that the moral sense of the Christian world becomes more quick with every year; and that the absolute wrong of slavery asserted itself more and more distinctly as this improvement went forward.

You can find traces of the dislike of slavery, not from economical grounds, but simply on moral principle, almost as far back as John Hawkins, who invented the English slave trade. Hawkins lived long enough to fight against the Spanish Armada. I am the more interested in him because the genealogies say that he

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is my grandfather's great-grandfather's great-great-grandfather, or something of that sort. What I know is that because he invented the English slave trade Queen Elizabeth knighted him and gave him for a crest a "kneeling blackamoor."[1]

But within fifty years of Hawkins's death, when the first slaves were brought into Massachusetts Bay, the General Court sent them back again with a stiff protest which declares

The Genrall Corte, conceiving themselues bound by ye first opportunity to bear witnes against ye haynos & crying sinn of man stealing, as also to pscribe such timely redresse for what is past, & such a law for ye future as may sufficiently deterr all othrs belonging to us to have to do in such vile & most odious courses, iustly abhored of all good and iust men, do order yt ye negro interpreter, wth othrs unlawfully taken, be, by ye first oportunity, (at ye charge of ye country for psent) sent to his native country of Ginny, & a letter wth him of ye indignation of ye Corte thereabouts, & iustice hereof, desireing or honored Govrnr would please to put this order in execution.

[1] In 1852, when I married the niece of Mrs. Stowe, her novel, "Uncle Tom's Cabin," was in everybody's hands. I told Mrs. Stowe that I had a right to use the Hawkins crest, but that I would add to it the motto "Am I not a man and a brother?" Old-fashioned people will remember that these were the device and motto on the anti-slavery pottery of the Wedgwoods.

The Cort thought fit to write to Mr Williams, of Pascataq, (undrstanding yt ye negrs wch Capt Smyth brought were fraudulently & iniuriously taken and brought from Ginny, by Capt Smiths confession, & ye rest of ye Company,) yt he forthwth send ye neger wch he had of Capt Smyth hither, yt he may be sent home, wch ye Cort doth resolve to sen back wthout delay; & if you have any thing to aleadge why you should not returne him, to be disposed of by ye Cort, it wil be expected you should forthwth make it appear, either by yorselfe or yor agent, but not to make any excuse or delay in sending of him.

The charter of Williams of the date of 1690 is very strong. It gives to all residents in the province the liberties of natural-born subjects. But, in face of this, slavery worked its way in. Somewhat as Mr. Chamberlain is sending prisoners of war to the Bermudas just now when I am writing, Governor Stoughton and the other magistrates of Massachusetts had sent King Philip's wife and child to be slaves in the West Indies in 1676. On the other hand, the same Judge Sewall who hanged the witches was printing his tracts against slavery as early as 1700, and until he died in 1730 he renewed his protest on all occasions.

But, at the same time, here is Daniel

THOMPSON,
THE ABOLITIONIST.

That infamous foreign scoundrel THOMPSON, will hold forth *this afternoon*, at the Liberator Office, No. 48, Washington Street. The present is a fair opportunity for the friends of the Union to *snake Thompson out!* It will be a contest between the Abolitionists and the friends of the Union. A purse of $100 has been raised by a number of patriotic citizens to reward the individual who shall first lay violent hands on Thompson, so that he may be brought to the tar kettle before dark. Friends of the Union, be vigilant!

Boston, Wednesday, 12 o'clock.

A PRO-SLAVERY HANDBILL

This was printed at the office of the Boston "Commercial Gazette," under the direction of the proprietor, James L. Homer, on the 21st of October, 1835, and was directed against George Thompson, who was then causing great excitement by his eloquent addresses against slavery. The poster was set up and run off on a hand-press by two apprentices of Homer, one of whom was George C. Rand, subsequently a master printer of Boston and the first printer of "Uncle Tom's Cabin." These two boys then distributed them among the bar-rooms and barber-shops of the business section of the city, with the result that by two o'clock a raging mob of 5,000 people gathered about the anti-slavery office, and shortly after laid violent hands upon Mr. Garrison, in the absence of Mr. Thompson, who was out of the city.

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De Foe in 1719 creating Robinson Crusoe, one of the most remarkable characters in fiction, perhaps the most remarkable. De Foe is distinctly and definitely a religious man. He not only pretends to be religious, he is religious. He says distinctly that the whole story describes his own inner religious experience. Robinson Crusoe is distinctly a religious man. Now, a religious writer like De Foe, creating a religious hero like Robinson, makes of him a Brazilian slave-trader who is shipwrecked in a slave ship which he had himself fitted out to bring a cargo of slaves from Africa to Brazil. This hero becomes the most popular hero in English romance for a century, perhaps I might say for two. Yet, in all the literary criticism of the book for a century, no one has found one word among the moralists of England which finds the least fault with Robinson on account of his active participation in the slave trade. It seems to me that this absolute silence on such a point shows the utter indifference of the public mind of England in the matter.[1]

But fifty years after Sewall's death, the critical and famous trial which gave to the slave Somersett his freedom in England testifies to the fundamental existence of the principle of freedom, concealed perhaps because it was fundamental and therefore underground. Cowper took up the famous decision, and his two lines,

"Slaves cannot breathe in England; if their lungs
Receive our air, that moment they are free,"

(in 1781) are better known than Lord Mansfield's decision on which they were founded. Really Holt's decision is much earlier. Cowper took these words, not from Mansfield, but from Mr. Hargrave's argument. Hargrave said that "the air of England is deemed too pure for slaves to breathe in."

It was not the first time, nor the last, when the great lawyers appeared as the apostles of liberty. Possibly under other conditions Lord Mansfield's decision might have been pressed in the North American colonies, by way of following up the victory of two years before. Nobody even dreamed of carrying the Mansfield decision to the West Indies, where the islands were not colonies, but, as we say, dependencies. And 1772 was not a very favorable time for asserting the value of a decision made in an English law court, as governing the North American colonies.

One likes to say, however, that there is a tradition among our Lowells—always friends of freedom—that the John Lowell of that day tried to carry a case into a Massachusetts court, with a wish to see whether the law of England were not the law of New England, whether our air were not too pure for a slave to breathe.

What did happen was a decision in favor of freedom in the Massachusetts Supreme Court in 1769. As early as the "Body of Liberties," printed in 1641, the General Court declared, "There shall never be any bond slaverie, villenage, or captivitie, unless it be lawful captives, taken in just wars, and such strangers as willingly sell themselves or are sold to us." And all captives or foreigners, free or not free, are at liberty to come to any public court, and, either by speech or writing, to make any motion.

In 1769, two years before the famous Somersett decision, a suit was brought by a negro in our Massachusetts courts which came to trial in 1770. The negroes contributed money themselves for the expenses of the case. It is the case James *vs.* Lechmere, which terminated favorably for them. The blacks pleaded that the Royal Charter declared that all persons born or residing in the province were as free as the King's subjects in Great Britain.

Somehow or other, however, the Bill of Rights of Virginia in 1776 contains the words "All men are born free and equal," and these words were copied by the Convention which made the Constitution of Massachusetts—the Constitution under which Massachusetts is governed to-day. As soon as this Constitution was in force, a negro named Quork Walker, with men as distinguished as Caleb Strong and Levi Lincoln (the elder) as his counsel, sued his master for assault "with the

[1] For the benefit of my friends in that admirable historical circle which is doing such good work in North Carolina I write this line to say that one at least of Daniel De Foe's sons went to North Carolina, settled and died there. Daniel De Foe's own knowledge of life in America is indicated in his capital novel "Colonel Jack," of which the scene is laid on the site of Washington and Georgetown, a novel now read by no one excepting myself and three intimate friends. In this capital novel, I say (imitating Robinson Crusoe's method) there is enough to show that he knew all about planting on our side the water. This suggests to our North Carolina friends that they ought to look up the De Foe plantation and perhaps find some descendants, personal or spiritual—Devaux perhaps? or Walter Page perhaps?

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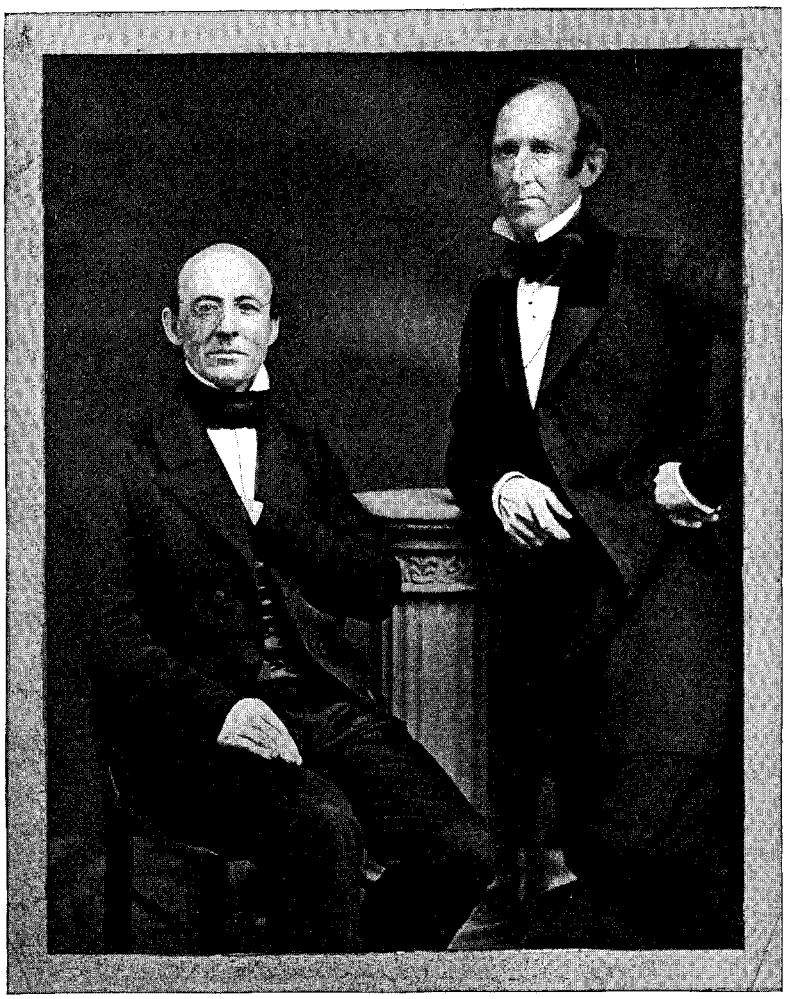
handle of a whip," and the replication states that he was a freeman and not a slave. A careful trial gave him his freedom. His counsel did not satisfy themselves with urging the Bill of Rights. Judge Washburn prints much of their brief, with its constant references to the rights of man. It is interesting to see that before Cowper's lines in the "Task" could have been read here, this brief cites Hargrave's famous epigram, with a change in the language, "The air of America is too pure for a slave to breathe in."

All this time there was a strong anti-slavery sentiment in Virginia—a sentiment certainly shared by some of the leaders. But I think that no slave there ever claimed his rights in Virginia under this same declaration of their Bill of Rights.

One speaks with great caution, or ought to; but I should say that all slavery discussion in the Convention which made the National Constitution was governed, to the eye at least, by economical considerations—that the moral elements involved were hardly referred to. I think it would be safe to say that a similar indifference to moral principles appears in the languid discussions of the matter which you find, with some difficulty, between 1800 and 1820. The occasional "testimonies" of some Quaker meeting are the great exceptions, although on the other side of the water the anti-slavery movement, as led by Clarkson and his friends, was already well under way.



WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON AND WENDELL PHILLIPS

Careful readers must remember that in such discussions condemnation of the

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slave trade was far in advance of the condemnation of slavery. The United States pronounced the slave trade piracy in 1808, as early as the Constitution permitted such action. The precedent which made a slave-trader a pirate was given by the United States, and was followed by all the maritime nations. This was while the United States at home was using all its National powers to maintain the institution of slavery.

As early as 1772 there appears at Yale College the first question ever debated by the Linonian Society. It was, "Is it right to enslave the Affricans?" I think, by the way, that this record, bad spelling and all, is made by my great-uncle, Nathan Hale, the same who was hanged by Howe.

At the great celebration at New Haven last October I asked a very bright woman why in New Haven, where Eli Whitney graduated, and where he spent most of his life, and where his descendants live honored to this day, nobody in four days of eloquence and song had one word to say about this graduate of the University, though he had by one invention revolutionized the commerce of the world. She answered on the instant by asking in turn if this same Eli Whitney, by this same invention, had not continued African slavery for half a century longer than it would have existed had there been no cotton-gin. The general verdict agrees that this is so. Of course no one ever blamed poor Whitney.

But with the advance, which seemed miraculous, of the cotton crop of the country, slave labor was no longer devoted to plantations of corn, wheat, tobacco, rice, and indigo. Cotton became king, and the institution of slavery seemed profitable. The moral protest of the Quakers, and of such idealists as Washington, Jefferson, and other Southern men like them, was of less and less avail. Almost without men's knowing it, the jealousy between agricultural States and commercial States became a conflict between the slave States and those which were free.

And this will be as good a place as any to say that the advice of the English abolitionists from the time of Clarkson down to the Civil War probably did more hurt than good in the matter of emancipation in America. From the Stamp Act down, the American people, by and large, have not fancied English advice in the matter of their politics. They had to take it sometimes, but even when they "ate crow they did not hanker for it." Thus, they had to accept the "Common Sense" of Tom Paine, but they never liked Tom Paine, and to this day his name is not acceptable. Paul Jones was their loyal servant, and won for them splendid victories. But Paul Jones never had his deserts at their hands, simply because he was an Englishman. Gates and Lee were placed in service next to Washington, and of both those Englishmen the record was as bad as it could be. And so one might go on, repeating instance after instance of an alienation springing out of the Revolution, sometimes to be justified and often unjustifiable, which for nearly a century made English advice very unpalatable to the rank and file of America. I will venture to say at this moment that American advice is just as unpalatable in England at this hour. There seems to be a certain Anglo-Saxon habit which makes each nation say, "If you will mind your business, we will mind ours." See 1 Thess. iv., 11.

The Congressional debates of 1819 and 1820 become the first discussions of the modern type as to the principles which lie under slavery. It was my business in 1854 to read, abridge, and publish again these debates, so far as they are preserved, and I like to testify as to the great ability of the discussion on both sides. But even then the discussion was more on constitutional than on ethical questions. What had Congress a right to do, what had the Northern States a right to do, in the way of prohibiting slavery in the Territories?

In a very valuable review which Mr. McMaster has prepared for his own history as to the progress of anti-slavery sentiment and anti-slavery discussion, he gives a curious list of the different anti-slavery newspapers, beginning as early as 1817. There were three or four times as many different journals of such sentiment in the country as there were forty years after, and all the earlier ones were printed in slave States. This was precisely as there were temperance journals in Massachusetts which inveighed against the manufacture of rum, because we made rum here, while there were none in Washington or Savannah, because they did not make rum there.

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CAUTION!!

COLORED PEOPLE

OF BOSTON, ONE & ALL,

You are hereby respectfully CAUTIONED and advised, to avoid conversing with the

Watchmen and Police Officers of Boston,

For since the recent ORDER OF THE MAYOR & ALDERMEN, they are empowered to act as

KIDNAPPERS

AND

Slave Catchers,

And they have already been actually employed in KIDNAPPING, CATCHING, AND KEEPING SLAVES. Therefore, if you value your LIBERTY, and the *Welfare of the Fugitives* among you, *Shun* them in every possible manner, as so many *HOUNDS* on the track of the most unfortunate of your race.

Keep a Sharp Look Out for KIDNAPPERS, and have TOP EYE open.

***APRIL* 24, 1851.**

THEODORE PARKER'S PLACARD

Placard written by Theodore Parker and printed and posted by the Vigilance Committee of Boston after the rendition of Thomas Sims to slavery in April, 1851.

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"Slavery is their business, not ours." This was practically the motto of all political parties, and of the men of commerce or of affairs. A good story of David Henshaw and of a Virginian friend in Norfolk, which must belong as late as the forties, perhaps the fifties, may as well go into print. Mr. Henshaw was Secretary of the Navy in one of the Southern Cabinets. He was one of the leaders of the Democratic party of Massachusetts; one of the men "who kept that party conveniently small," so that all its leaders had Federal offices. Mr. Henshaw was one of the early railway men, a man of foresight enough and courage enough to know what modern civilization would demand. It was long before the war that he was in Norfolk, Virginia, consulting with some of the leaders there as to the opening up of communication westward from their magnificent harbor. As he rode with one of his Virginian friends one day, the Southerner said, "You abolitionists say" this or that. Henshaw disclaimed the word. The Democrats of that day kept their garments very clear from such stains. The Virginian laughed. "I know you make your distinctions. But we call you all abolitionists." Henshaw would not laugh. "You are quite wrong," he said. "We are as fond of our ways as you are of yours. We manufacture cotton and wool and shoes and iron. We send our ships into every ocean. And if, to maintain slave labor, you choose to let your magnificent cataracts go to waste, to let your coal lie unburned and your iron unsmelted, to send your timber to us for our purposes, and never to build a ship in these waters, some of us, I assure you, are very much obliged to you." This was enough, and the Virginian said in reply, "Well! Mr. Henshaw, pray do not think that we are all damned fools."

Newport News and its magnificent shipbuilding make the comment to-day on that anecdote.

To refer once more to personal recollections, I had always been trained at home to absolute courtesy, not to say tenderness, to all such negroes as we saw in Boston. I should have been taken to task very severely had I failed at all in such courtesies. Yet I remember perfectly the indignation with which, when I was ten or eleven years old, I saw on a placard in the window of the Old Corner Book-store in Boston the announcement of Mrs. Child's book called "An Appeal for that Class of Americans Called Africans." I and the boy with me were indignant that a negro should be called an American at all. This was the first anti-slavery book with "stiff covers," as the Authors' Club would say, which was published in America. Years before this, acting I suppose under the stimulus of some sermon on charity, I stopped a black boy under the Paddock elms in Boston, as I was going to school, and, to his great surprise, gave him a cent. In later times I have given a great many cents to other black people, merely on the principle of penance, because I have no other way of expressing my regret for the conduct of my ancestors toward theirs. But this largess to the black boy was not based on any such feeling. It grew simply from the tone taken in English story-books, in which, at that time, black boys and chimney-sweeps were badly mixed together, and the impression was given to a child of seven that black boys were of necessity poor. I recollect hearing bigger boys say that, except on "Nigger Election," black boys were not permitted to come farther than a certain point on the Common. But this limitation, if it ever existed, was a mere tradition in my time, belonging with the myths about battles between North-Enders and South-Enders.

I should say that 1833, the date of Mrs. Child's book, marks the beginning of the period in which the discussion of the question of slavery was taken at all seriously at the North. As lately as when I left college, in 1839, my classmate, the late William Francis Channing, was, I think, the only man in our class who would have permitted himself to be called an abolitionist. I should not, I am sure. I do not think Samuel Longfellow would. The "Liberator" had been founded on the first of January, 1831. But it certainly did not attract much attention for several years.

A GENERATION OF MEN

In the fifth number of this series I gave a severely condensed account of the debate on the Missouri Compromise. That was at the end of the generation after the compromises of the Constitution. And, as I believe I have said already, each

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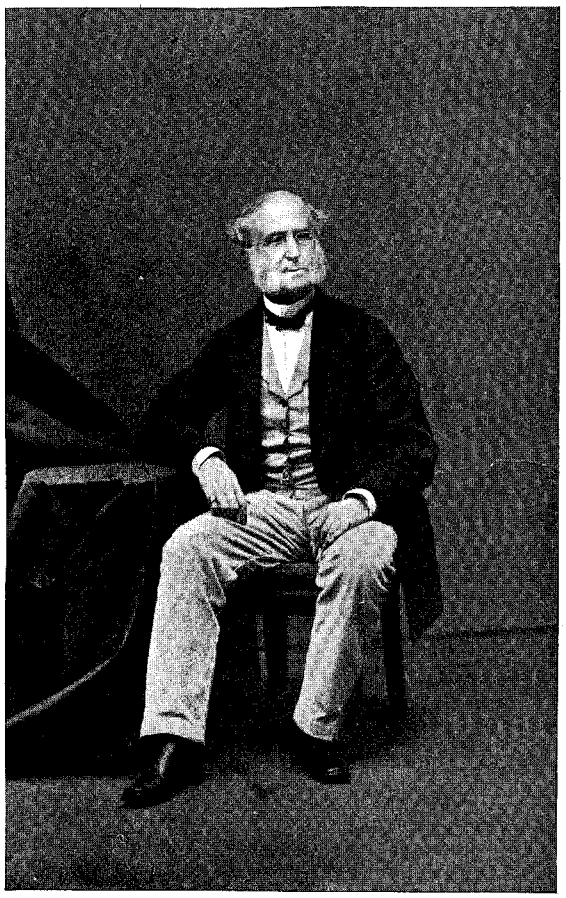
generation has to settle these things anew. In that chapter I spoke of the disgraceful omission by Mr. George Ticknor Curtis in his life of Daniel Webster of any reference to Mr. Webster's presiding at the Boston meeting which was called in the State House and protested against the introduction of slavery in Missouri. It was at that very period that Ralph Waldo Emerson wrote thus of Mr. Webster, on the 12th of November, 1822: "By dint of much electioneering, the good cause has succeeded, and we are sending our giant down among you false Sothrons. We are proudly anticipating the triumph of the Northern interest to be gained or to be achieved by Mr. Webster. . . . I think Mr. Webster had about two-thirds of the whole number of votes." Observe that Emerson had graduated in 1821. It is perhaps worth while to note a few of what I like to call the broken lights of the time, which show how strong was the feeling already existing.

There was a great fire in Savannah. Its government implored relief. Among other cities, New York remitted eleven thousand dollars. In sending the money the New York people asked that it might be distributed among the poorest citizens of Savannah, and added the condition, "without distinction of color." These unfortunate words sealed its fate; the hot blood of Savannah boiled, and, by a vote of the Council, the insult was met by sending back the money with a short, impertinent letter.

A Philadelphia insurance company, when asked at what rate it would insure some Southern property, answered that its directors had concluded that they would not take any more risks south of the Mason and Dixon line. I am afraid that in this generation I must tell our younger readers that Mason and Dixon's line is the line which separates Maryland, a Southern State, and Pennsylvania, a Northern State.

In the June number of the "North American Review" of 1820 was a paper by Judge Lemuel Shaw, afterwards Chief Justice of Massachusetts, in defense of the "Restriction." Judge Story printed a charge on the slave trade in the midst of the discussion. Indeed, the anti-slavery feeling of the North asserted itself in a hundred ways.

I cannot help wishing that somebody would at this late date reprint what is



EDMUND QUINCY

left of the discussions in the Senate and the House on the fundamental question. To tell the whole truth, I had meant in this chapter to print a good many mementos of it. But space is space, and a page of The Outlook will only hold a few hundred words, wish what we may.

Take these epigrams as illustrations of what was said on each side. John Randolph cried, in the House, "God has given us Missouri, and the devil cannot take it from us."

Lowrie, of Pennsylvania, in the House said, "If the alternative be the dissolu-

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tion of this Union or the extension of slavery over the whole western country, I choose the former."

Harrison Gray Otis's speech is worth reading to-day. "The gentleman talks of sparks ignited. I can tell him that when the pine forests of Maine are lighted they burn with quite as fierce a flame as the spire-grass of Missouri."

The great debate, the "Misery Debate," as it was called in joke sometimes, ended in what men still call "Mr. Clay's first Compromise." Very little of his great speech is preserved. This passage is one of those which remain: "I appeal to Pennsylvania, the unambitious Pennsylvania, the keystone of the Federal arch, whether she will concur in a measure calculated to disturb the peace of this Union."

The formation of the Colonization Society in 1817 is a curious rather than an important sign of the times. In the near future the colony of Liberia may yet prove important in the progress of the development of Africa. But at the time when the Society was formed even its enthusiastic friends did not pretend that it would remove the question of slavery from American politics. After Mr. McMaster's careful and full discussions of its early operations I should not venture to throw in any side-lights. It is enough here to say that the officers of the Society gave, for its reason for being, the degradation of the free people of color. They printed statistics which, as I believe, were awfully untrue[1] as to the amount of crime, disease, and other wretchedness among them. They declared that such degradation resulted from their anomalous position, that they were neither fish nor fowl, because they were neither slaves nor white men, and that it was but fair to them to place them in a new country where they could show what their race was fit for. Their earliest reports disclaim any effort to increase the number of emancipated slaves.

Even before this time James Madison had altered the provision of his will by which he had determined that his slaves should be freed after Mrs. Madison's death.

What is certain is that, from the time of the Missouri Compromise forward, the anti-slavery feeling of Virginia, or of the leaders of Virginia, declined, and that the discussion of the subject in the Northern States took on more and more the character of a moral question. In proportion as cotton became king and the cotton crop of the Gulf States increased from year to year, the change came over Virginia which made her a slave-breeding State. The price of slaves became higher and higher as this new market opened for them, and the wish for emancipation, which had appeared everywhere in the Virginian history, was checked by the new economic conditions. Now observe that Garrison had started the "Liberator" in Baltimore January 1, 1831.

There is not any more interesting index of this change than may be observed in the memoirs of John Quincy Adams. He had reason enough to dislike Southern politics and to distrust Southern politicians. But I think it is not until after the Missouri Compromise that his papers, his letters, or his speeches indicate his special aversion to slavery. Indeed, in that magnificent career of his in Congress, after he was President, he appears in defense of the right of petition as claimed by anti-slavery men before he takes very eager ground in the support of their positions.

The truth is that as the country gradually became a Nation and ceased to be a Confederacy, it became more and more clear that it could not be a nation of freedom and a nation of slavery at the same time. This is completely stated in Abraham Lincoln's epigram of the time. You cannot have eight republics allied with five oligarchies, to repeat Gouverneur Morris's epigram. But your Nation must be one thing or another. Eight houses may be divided against five houses, but one house divided against itself cannot stand. I remember that as early as 1836, when I was in college and was discussing this matter with my dear friend Donaldson, from Maryland, I said to him that the whole system would come to an end under commercial laws; that as the railways opened up from South to North, the slaves would run away if they wanted to. And neither of us, I think, conceived the possibility of any National legislation strong enough to carry them back again.

It was, of course, easy enough to say

[1] From a curious and important error, which appears in all the early censuses.

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that under the Constitution slavery was a local institution, and that every State might manage as it chose. This was so as long as Washington spoke of Virginia as "my country," or Pinckney said the same thing of Carolina. But you could not hold to this while you guaranteed to every citizen of every State the same rights as you gave to every citizen of your own State. And, for instance, the statute of South Carolina of the year 1823, which prohibits the arrival in her ports of free blacks from other States, under penalty of imprisonment, is just as much an act of nullification as any of the legislation of after years.

Mr. Garrison and the other original abolitionists used to the utmost the privilege which they undoubtedly had, of attacking slavery as an evil in itself, without proposing any method of meeting the difficulties of the process, and without attempting to make them less. Slavery is wrong. It was enough to say that. "Strike a man?" Dr. Channing would put that question, and he had freed his conscience. Emancipate the man, and the future might take care of itself. But many years did not go by before the sensitive consciences of some abolitionists compelled them to withdraw from acting under a Constitution which they wanted to destroy. How could you vote, as a citizen, in an organization which you called a covenant with hell? From this conscientiousness came the inevitable division between the old organization and the new—a division which the outsiders ridiculed by classing the two factions as "New Ogs" and "Old Ogs" when their annual meetings came round. Within these organizations, however, the members treated each other with a cordial catholicity, and, though they could not contribute to each other's treasuries, or join directly in each other's system of propaganda, they recognized fidelity to the essential privilege. And so soon as the Liberty party formed itself, all who could vote, in conscience, were generally to be found in its ranks. As early as 1844 the independent vote of the Liberty party was withdrawn from Mr. Clay, and this lost the vote of New York—then, as always, the Empire State—to Mr. Clay. He was pledged to oppose the annexation of Texas. The election of Mr. Polk, his competitor, was thus secured. New York, as always up to that date, voted with the South, and the supremacy of the South for the next sixteen years was secured.

So the "settlement" by the Missouri question lasted for its generation of men. The figures are curiously accurate. The Constitution was completed in 1787. Thirty-three years after, the Missouri Compromise was passed. Thirty-three years more, and Mr. Dixon, of Kentucky, introduced the amendment to the Nebraska Bill which repealed the Compromise section of March 6, 1820. This would violate the Compromise.

Mr. Edward Everett—who had a very nice sense of the obligation of the Missouri Compromise—said to me, more than once, as the war went on, that the violation of it was the work of nine men. I wish I had asked him who he thought the nine men were. I wish some cool-headed Southern man, at this hour, would name these real leaders in the secession policy. This was undoubtedly true—that the mere fact that a man owned slaves made him a member, whether he would or no, of an oligarchy of slaveholders—a small corporation, as one might call it. Such a syndicate, as our modern term would have it, moves with a certain promptness. And this particular syndicate until 1853 had the easy direction of the Democratic party. Had this syndicate been willing to hold on to what it had, in the annexation of Texas, the Missouri Compromise and the system to which it belonged would, according to me, have lasted much longer than they did. But in the destruction of that barrier the pent-up forces of Northern indignation were set free, which had been gathering from the beginning.

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RICHARD STRAUSS

A Modern Song Writer

ALMOST periodically there appears in the field of music a figure that becomes the chief center of controversy. Such a figure was Beethoven; such was Wagner. At the present time the center of the controversy is a young composer, barely thirty-eight years of age, Richard Strauss. The announcement was recently made that next season he is to make a visit to this country, during which he will conduct a series of concerts of his own works. He is preeminently a master of the vast resources of the modern orchestra, and with this medium he has shown tremendous daring in the attempt to express ideas that no other composer has approached. To some he seems a corrupter of the pure art of music, a sensationalist; to others he is the prophet of a new musical era, even "the inventor of a new art." Concerning such an artist there are always suspicions of affectation. What must lay these suspicions in the case of Richard Strauss are the spontaneous, pure, absolutely sincere lyrics which he has written. They are striking examples of the German *Lied*. Some of them, like his orchestral works, are highly dramatic, but even in these there is no sign of artificiality. His spirit can be seen, in part, in his choice of words for musical interpretation. As an illustration we append a translation of two lyrics by Hermann von Gilm, the Tyrolese poet, whose verses have inspired a number of Strauss's *Lieder*.

In the Tyrol the name of Hermann von Gilm has only recently become a

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household word, and in the world outside it is hardly yet known at all. Gilm was born at Innsbruck; he went to school and to the university there. He became a lawyer. In 1838 he was appointed to a Government office at Innsbruck, being later transferred to Schwaz, then to Bruneck, Roveredo, Vienna, and Linz. He died in 1864. His life work and thought are reflected in his lyrics; what he accomplished in the realm of drama and romance is unimportant in comparison. In their perfect form, their remarkable language, and their richness of feeling his songs demand a place alongside the best in the history of German literature. Especially notable and characteristic are those poems of Gilm in which he shows himself a sturdy opponent of clerical domination in the Tyrol, particularly in so far as the Jesuits are concerned; but the most popular of all the poems are those in which an indestructible grace and freshness are evident—the poems in which he praises the glory of the Alps, his home, and the life there. We have had many a description of Tyrolese nature; in Gilm's verses we have also an impressive description, like those here translated, of Tyrolese human nature:

THE NIGHT

BY HERMANN GILM

Translated by Mary Baldwin

Out of the forest trips the Night;
From under the trees she softly steals;
Wide is the circle her look reveals—
Now look bright!

She forces all light of the world to yield,
All flowers, all colors, all she sees,
Extinguishes and steals the sheaves
From the field.

All beauty she takes with fingers bold,
The silver from the streamlet's foam,
Takes from the copper-haloed dome
The dull gold.

Denuded is each branch and tree—
Soul to soul, O closer cleave,
Lest as well the Night bereave
Me of Thee.

ALL SOULS' DAY

BY HERMANN GILM

Translated by Mary Baldwin

Place on the table fragrant mignonette,
And bring the last red asters here to lay;
Then let us speak of love and ne'er forget,
As once in May.

Give me thy hand, strong let me press it here,
And if they see—I care not what they say.
Grant me but one of thy sweet glances, Dear,
As once in May.

On every grave to-day gay flowers are lain,
The dead each year are given free one day.
Come to my heart, to hold thee close again
As once in May!

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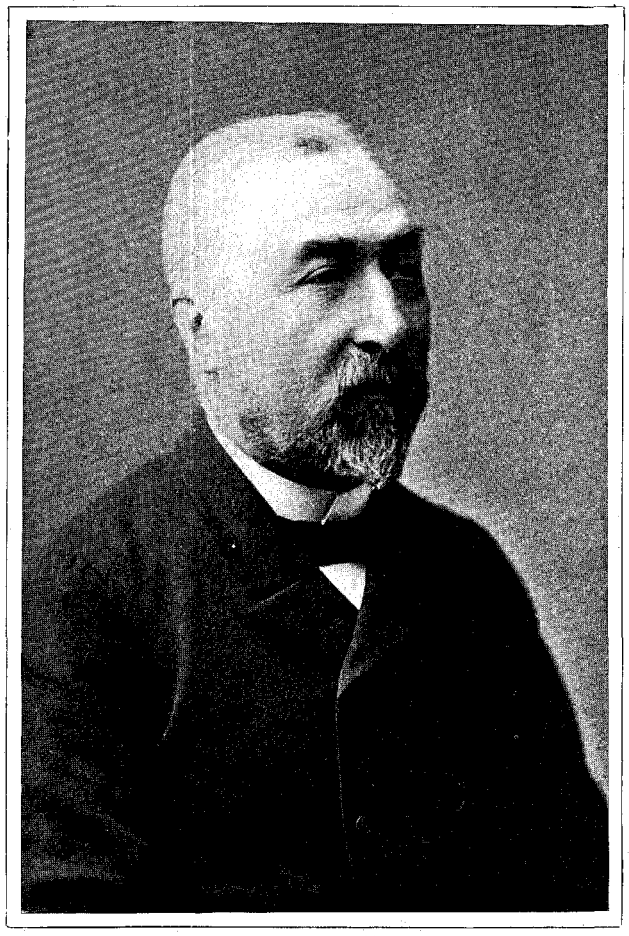

The New French Premier

M. Justin Combes, the leader of the new Cabinet in France, and the successor of M. Waldeck-Rousseau as Prime Minister, reached his present distinction as the political leader of the Republican party in France rather because of specially favoring circumstances than because he was universally recognized as the one man suited to succeed the Premier who made so long a record of useful and fair political leadership. M. Combes is about sixty-seven years old, and is described as practical, self-contained, and sagacious. He has not been without experience in public life, as he at one time held the office of Minister of Education. It is rather remarkable, in view of the fact that he goes into power as representing the anti-clerical element, that he studied in early life for the priesthood. The expectation seems to be that M. Combes's Ministry will be marked by an energetic anti-clerical campaign. The London "Spectator," for instance, says: "M. Combes, whom the Church fears and detests, will carry out the law against associations till the monastic life becomes nearly impossible, and will endeavor so to 'laicize' education that the interference of a priest in a school of any kind shall deprive it of all claim to State help, even if it is not treated directly as an offense. They will, in short, commence a campaign against the Church which will stop short only of complete disestablishment."

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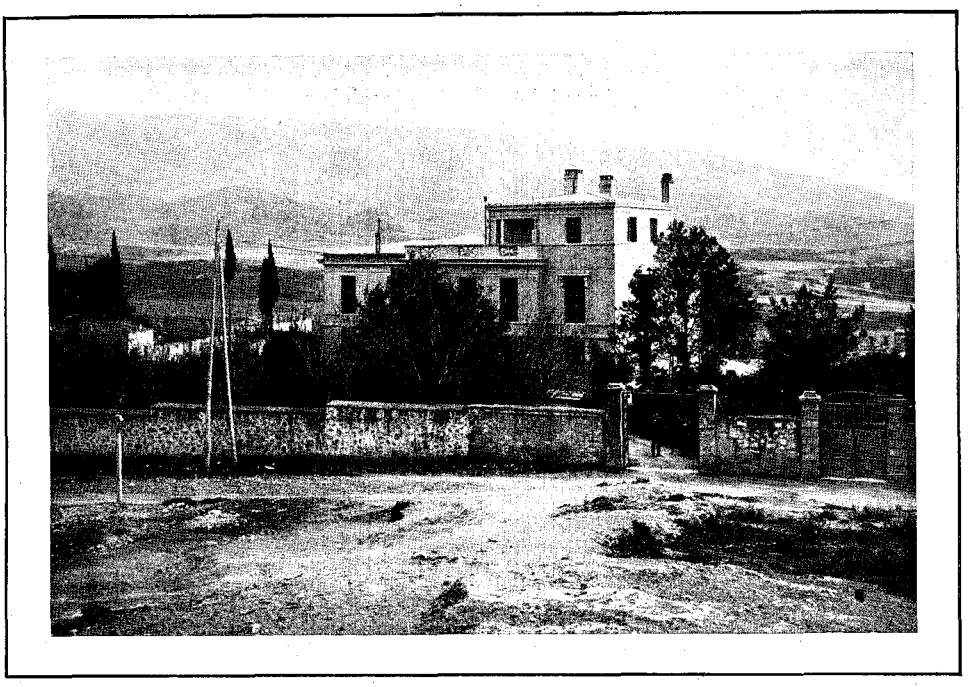

THE SCHOOL BUILDING, WITH MOUNT HYMETTUS IN THE BACKGROUND

The American School of Classical Studies at Athens

By J. R. Wheeler

Chairman of the Managing Committee

IT was toward the close of the fourteenth century that the Florentine family called Acciajuoli, largely through the workings of trade relations, established themselves as Dukes of Athens. This connection of the two towns so famous in the artistic development of mankind seems to mark the beginning of an interest among the lovers of art of western Europe in the monuments of ancient Hellas. For a long time, no doubt, there was little consciousness, on the part of the men who stimulated the great movement which we call the Renaissance, of the supreme merit of Greek plastic art—the influence of the literature was felt far sooner—but none the less the seed was sown in these days of the Florentines; and not yet, as the growing museums of Europe and of our own country testify, can we measure the extent of the artistic influence of ancient Greece in our modern life. It is in truth, as Gregorovius in his "History of Athens in the Middle Ages" more than once remarks, an historical event alike interesting and picturesque that through Florence at the first the West should have awakened to a consciousness of its great artistic heritage, for Greece is of the West and not of the East; but, striking as this fact is, it is no more noteworthy in its historic suggestiveness than the conditions which, after five centuries, we may see in the Athens of to-day. Then the world had well-nigh forgotten the power of Greek art, now it pays to that art the tribute of unstinted praise. As yet we are too near the events to realize the full significance of these conditions, but that six of the leading nations of the world, France, Germany, the United States, Great Britain, Austria, and Russia, should have established schools in Athens for the

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study of the art and civilization of ancient Greece is a fact, so far as I know, without parallel in the history of human culture, and the most extraordinary testimonial to the permanent power of Greek ideals. The visitor to Athens will now see gathered there, during the winter and spring months, scholars and students from all these countries working together in friendly co-operation, and he may well feel that the days when Athens was a university town for the youth of the Roman Empire have almost come again, and that even though Justinian might close the philosophical schools, he could not destroy from among men the subtle influence of Greek culture, which, after many centuries, has had the power to rebuild Athens, and like a lodestone to attract to the shores of Greece students from beyond the fabled Atlantis. Not even in Rome can we as yet see so large a gathering of national schools, except, indeed, as students from different lands assemble under the fostering care of the Vatican; but the case of these young men is of course different, for they are first and foremost sons of the Church, and are brought together by the centralizing power of a great organization.

It would be possible to trace from the time of the Florentine Dukes, if this were the place to do so, the growing interest among the peoples of western Europe in the treasures of ancient Athens—an interest which has culminated in the international university life that we see there to-day; but this would constitute a long chapter in the history of the revival of Greek learning, and would of course be apart from the purpose of this brief sketch. Yet it should not be forgotten that the men who founded, and the universities and colleges that have maintained, our School at Athens have simply been playing a part in one of the very important movements in the growth of human culture which had its beginnings some centuries ago. As now in so many other spheres of activity, we are here taking our place among other nations in an important branch of historical and artistic study, and though our band of scholars is a comparatively small one, and the resources of our School are still very meager, its twenty years of life have nevertheless been distinctly a credit to American scholarship, and its influence throughout the country widespread. The motive which led in the beginning to the foundation of most of these schools was undoubtedly a special and scientific one—the desire to augment the knowledge of ancient Greek art and civilization in its various phases—but in fact their function has also been more or less directly an educative one. In the case of the American School this was naturally so from the first, since the conditions prevailing in this country had not fostered the archæological and artistic side of classical study, and we had no scholars trained to this kind of work. But among the other schools also, that of Germany especially has sought to spread its influence by somewhat popular instruction, and the coming of each spring witnesses the gathering in Athens of a goodly number of German teachers, who, under the guidance of Professor Dörpfeld, take journeys through Greece both by land and water. If, however, the schools at Athens are interesting, considered historically or in their international aspect, the American School has further a distinctly national interest in the fact that it is the fruit of an all too rare co-operation between the higher educational institutions of the country.

It was in the spring of 1881 that Professor Charles Eliot Norton, at that time President of the Archæological Institute of America, suggested the formation of a committee to bring to pass the foundation at Athens of "An American School of Classical Literature, Art, and Antiquities;" but the Institute unfortunately had no money for such a project, so the committee which was appointed proceeded to form a league of universities and colleges which should each contribute the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars a year for the maintenance of the School. Every contributing institution had representation on the Managing Committee of the School, and thus the whole guidance of it was from the beginning in the hands of persons who were actively engaged in educational work in this country. Nor did they come from any one section of the country, but from Massachusetts to California, and thus, since these supporting institutions have for a good many years numbered twenty or more, the Managing Committee has been truly representative of classical education in Amer-

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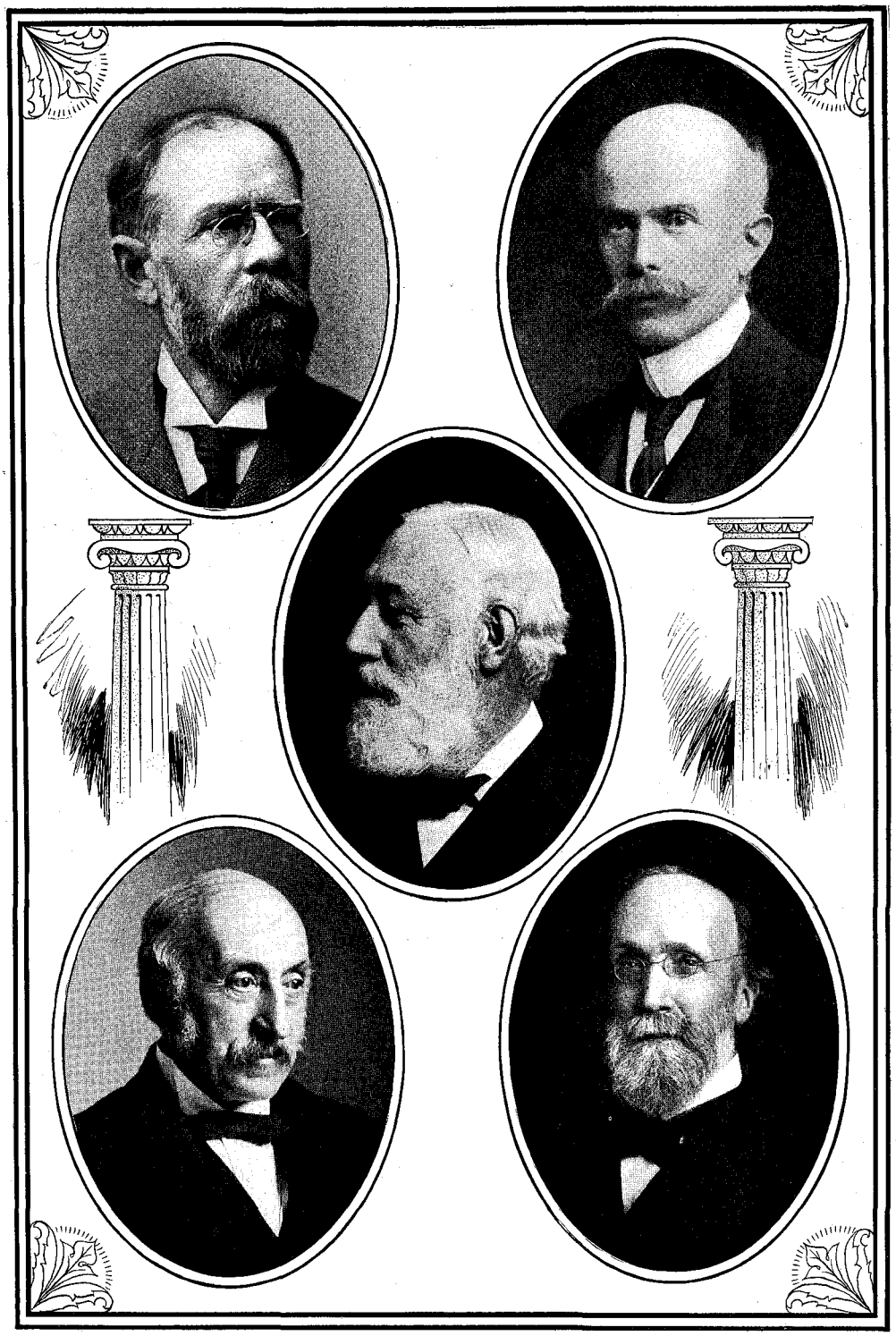

DIRECTORS AND FOUNDERS OF THE SCHOOL AT ATHENS

Rufus B. Richardson. Charles Waldstein.

Prof. W. W. Goodwin.

Prof. C. E. Norton. Prof. T. D. Seymour.

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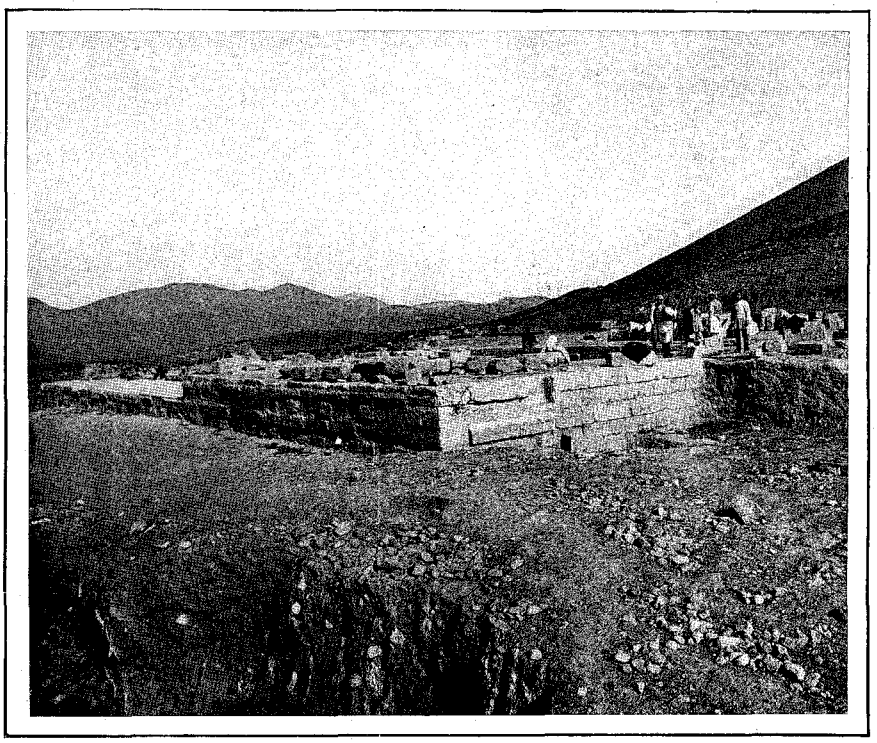
ica. From 1881 to 1887 Professor John Williams White, of Harvard, was Chairman of the Managing Committee, and from the latter date till 1901 Professor Thomas Day Seymour, of Yale, held this office, and to the earnest labor of these two gentlemen, performed often under great difficulties, the success of the School has been largely due.

The most serious problems which have faced the managers of the School in this country have always been financial in character, but such difficulties have of course often involved the restriction of the actual work of the School. For some years, until 1888 indeed, the Committee could not offer the Director any regular salary, and he had largely to depend upon the generosity of the particular institution which sent him out and gave him leave of absence for a year. In spite, however, of this serious disadvantage, much good work was accomplished. Thus, during the year 1882–1883, under the directorship of Professor Goodwin, of Harvard, a most successful beginning was made. An excellent house was hired for the School, the library (now a fine collection of books numbering several thousand volumes) was started, and a wise system of study was inaugurated. In March, 1887, the cornerstone of the present school building was laid during the directorship of Professor D'Ooge, of the University of Michigan, and soon the School became the owner of an adequate building which stands on land given by the Greek Government. But the Director could not remain away from home for more than a year, and thus for a time the directorate underwent constant change, and the work of the School in consequence sadly lacked continuity and scientific character. In 1888 Dr. Charles Waldstein, of Cambridge, England, and, in this country, of Columbia, was elected Director, and though his engagements in England prevented his residence in Athens for the entire school year, he administered the office with marked success till 1892, when it became impossible for him longer to carry on his work in two places so far distant from each other. With a brief interregnum, when the School was in the very competent hands of Professor F. B.



EXCAVATIONS OF THE ARGIVE HERÆUM

The foundations of the Second Temple, looking northeast towards the mountains of Arcadia.

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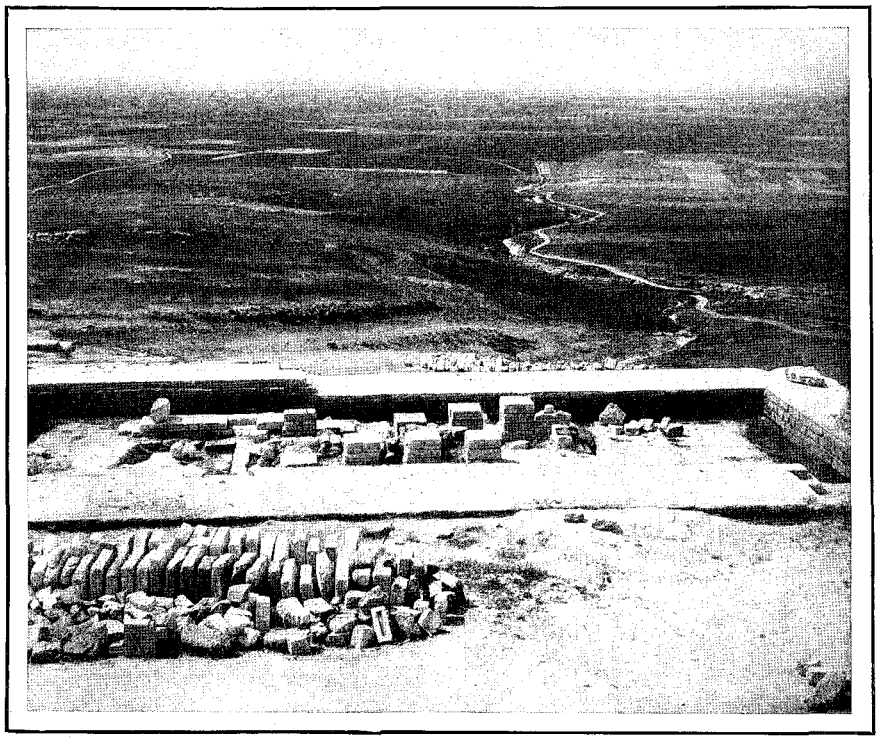
Tarbell, of the University of Chicago, Dr. Waldstein was succeeded by Professor R. B. Richardson, the present Director, whose long period of service, now drawing to a close, has been marked by the School's constant progress. The arrangement of an annual change in the directorship of the School was a makeshift, and was always regarded as a temporary thing, yet the system had certain valuable features in that it tended to keep the School in close touch with the colleges; but this advantage has not been lost, for since the appointment of a Director for a longer term it has been the custom for one of the supporting institutions to send each year a representative of its faculty to the School. In this way many colleges and universities have already sent out professors for a year —Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Chicago, Wesleyan, Michigan, Princeton, Dartmouth, Brown, Vermont, Cornell, Amherst, Wellesley, and Bryn Mawr.

In spite, however, of this record of successful development, the School is still very inadequately endowed; the permanent fund is only about $70,000, and the supporting institutions are still called upon to continue their subscriptions, from which it is the earnest desire of the Managing Committee that they should in large measure be relieved. We can only hope that some one may be found who is willing to place the directorship on a permanent foundation, or to endow the library, or directly to increase the present fund.

Such, then, has been what we might call the external history of the School—its organization and general administration—during the past twenty years; but what has it done in this time to advance the cause of sound learning and to broaden the study of Greek in this country? This question may most easily be answered by considering first the publications which have been issued and the excavations which have been and are being carried on, and, secondly, the list of those who have studied at the School and the academic positions which they now hold. At first it was the plan that separate volumes of "Papers of the School" should be issued, and six of these were published up to the year 1897, the last two being



EXCAVATIONS OF THE ARGIVE HERÆUM

Looking from the foundations of the Second Temple across the Plain of Argos.

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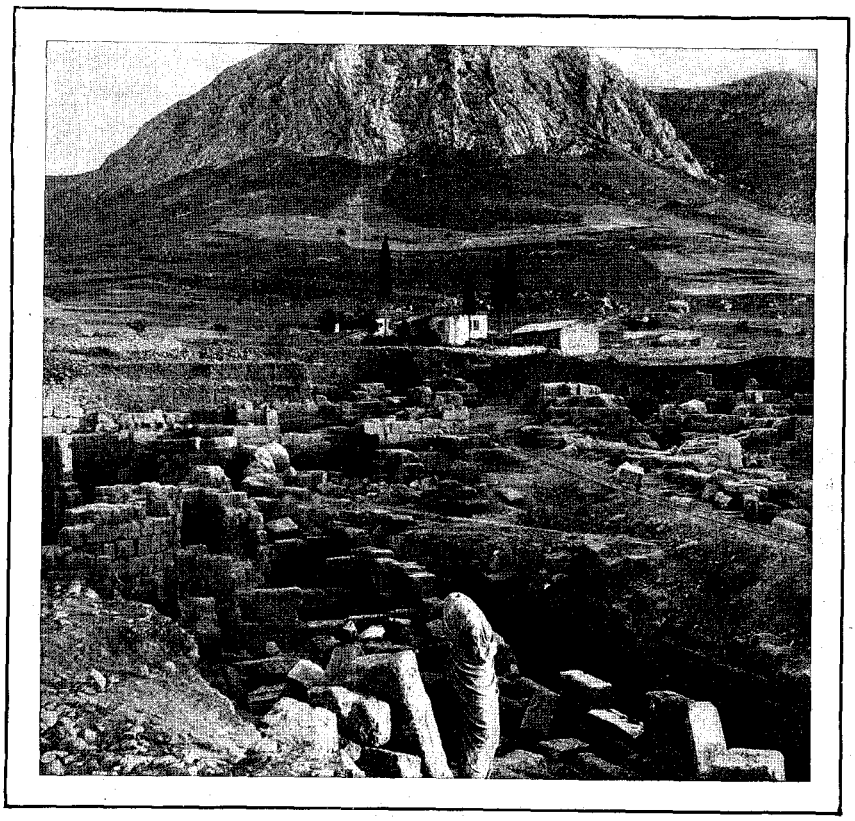

THE EXCAVATIONS OF CORINTH
The Acro-Corinthus in the background.

collections of articles which had already appeared in the "American Journal of Archæology." About this time the Journal passed into the direct control of the officers of the Archæological Institute and has since become the School's organ of regular publication. The "Papers" have been well received by the world of scholars, and there are many essays in the volumes which have great and permanent value. The method of publication in a periodical of course has its limitations, and in one, at any rate, of the larger undertakings of the School it proved quite inadequate. I refer to the excavations at the Heræum in Argos which were conducted by Professor Waldstein, of which a handsome separate publication is now in progress. This is the most important of the excavations which the School has completed, but it is by no means the only one in which good scientific results have been obtained. Light was thrown on questions relating to the Greek theater by work at Thoricus and Sicyon and Eretria, that at Icaria yielded important information in the history of the Attic Demes, there were good results at Platæa, and it would be possible to mention other places where, at small expenditure of money, our knowledge of ancient life and history has been augmented by members of the School. One instance, for example, was the clever discovery by Mr. Andrews, of Cornell, of the Neronian inscription on the architrave of the Parthenon; the recent very successful excavations in Crete conducted with unusual skill by Miss Boyd constitute another instance; and, did space permit, it would be easy to mention other no less creditable pieces of work. For some seasons past the Director has been digging at Corinth, and the results of this work, especially so far as they concern the topography of the ancient city, are of high importance. In the domain of art, while not without value, they have not been so noteworthy, but, considering the comparatively small amount of money at the disposal of the School, a great deal has been

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accomplished, and it is yet too soon to prophesy the outcome of the work. When we consider the large sums of money which the German and French schools have from time to time received for this work of excavation—as, for example, at Olympia and Delphi—we have every reason to congratulate ourselves on what the Americans with their limited means have accomplished.

In considering now the roll of students of which our School may well be proud, if the lists in the annual reports be noted, it will be seen that there is a separate enrollment of "Fellows of the School." After some years of experience it was found that for the more special work in archæology the students came with too little preliminary training to get at once the full benefit of study in Athens. It was, therefore, decided to establish fellowships which should be awarded upon examination—the examinations to be held in Athens and at any of the institutions which co-operate in the support of the School. These fellowships are now three in number: two of the value of $600 each, one granted by the Archæological Institute and one by the School itself; and the third, of $1,000, open only to women. This was established in memory of Miss Agnes Hoppin by Mrs. Courtland Hoppin, Miss Sarah Hoppin, and Professor J. C. Hoppin, of Bryn Mawr College. The effect of these fellowships has been marked. They have raised the standard of attainment and have tended to prolong the residence of students in Athens, and they have likewise stimulated the study of Greek art and antiquity in the colleges of this country. Many institutions now offer courses in these subjects, and thus to a greater or less degree give preparation for the fellowship examinations. In Athens itself the fellowships have really divided the students into two classes, those who are more advanced and who are trained for more special work, and those whose objects are more general. The latter class is, of course, the larger one, and through the students who belong in this, even more than through the Fellows, the School must hope to make its educative influence felt throughout the country. It is not necessary that a teacher of Greek shall remain for several years in Athens and pursue studies of a very special character, but residence for a year or so, with general study and travel, will, of course, be of the greatest benefit to such a person. The School is glad also to welcome to work in Athens the chance American traveler who is interested in Greek study, and, so far as this is possible, the library is open to all such persons. The lists in the last annual Report show that there have been in all 125 students at the School, 97 men and 28 women. In recent years there have been annually from ten to fifteen in attendance, besides occasional travelers who may make use of the library for a longer or shorter period. These students of the School occupy positions as professors and teachers of various grades in something like eighty different institutions in the United States, and these institutions are scattered throughout the land from Maine to California. Some of the students have already achieved high distinction, and all are doing their part in spreading abroad larger ideals of Greek culture. This record of usefulness is one in which the managers of the School take a just pride. Their work has been done with very limited resources and often in the face of many difficulties; but the result is encouraging, not only in itself, but also because it tends to show that we have not yet quite forgotten the truth that sound literary work and a true knowledge of the history of art must have their beginnings in a study of the literature and art of Classical Antiquity. Sometimes it may have seemed that the colleges and universities were diverting much-needed funds to the support of a far-away institution, but, as I hope I have made plain, the School at Athens is in reality very near, and in maintaining it the supporting institutions have worthily performed an important part of their duty in resisting too material ideals of liberal education and in upholding that which so greatly ministers "to the need in man for conduct, and to the need in him for beauty." Mr. Arnold never said a truer thing than when he pointed out that modern life sadly lacks the "admirable symmetry" of the Greeks; and it is one of the great objects of the School at Athens that we may not be forced with utter truth to use the words he quotes from Leonardo da Vinci, *Defuit una mihi symmetria prisca*—"The antique symmetry was the one thing wanting in me."

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The College and the University

I.—The Adjustment of the Small College to Our Educational System

By William De Witt Hyde

President of Bowdoin College

NEARLY all the distinguished alumni of Bowdoin College graduated at about the present average age of entrance, and were well launched on their professional careers at about the age at which our students now graduate. Jacob Abbott and William Pitt Fessenden graduated before they were seventeen; Longfellow, George Evans, George B. Cheever, Henry B. Smith, Gideon L. Soule, at eighteen; Franklin Pierce, Cyrus A. Bartol, John A. Andrew, Fordyce Barker, Samuel Harris, Egbert C. Smyth, Thomas H. Hubbard, at nineteen; John S. C. Abbott, William P. Frye, O. O. Howard, Melville W. Fuller, William L. Putnam, E. P. Parker, Edward Stanwood, Newman Smyth, at twenty; Hawthorne, John P. Hale, C. C. Everett, Thomas B. Reed, Robert E. Peary, at twenty-one. The present average age is twenty-three—two years too high. It is an undue burden on parents; delays self-support too long; brings men belated to their professions; postpones marriage. The proposed remedies, however, are still in the visionary or experimental stages.

The Chicago University plan is to drop all the weaker colleges to the level of junior colleges, covering the first two years of the present college course; bring the better high schools and academies up to that level, giving six years to this extended high school or curtailed college, and then receiving the graduates of this six years' course into the universities and professional schools.

Whether this would be advantageous or not to our educational system as a whole, it may be classed as a purely visionary solution—at least until human nature shall reach the point where individuals are sufficiently altruistic to commit suicide for the general welfare. For colleges die harder than individuals, and are even more averse to death by their own hands.

The Harvard plan has been to raise the requirements for admission by about half a year's work, and reduce the required number of courses in college by two or three, making it optional for the student to do three and a half years' work in either three years, three years and a half, or four years. This plan also encourages the anticipation of some college courses in the preparatory school or in summer schools.

The objection to this as a plan for general adoption is that it is impossible to bring the secondary schools in all parts of the country, small and large, rich and poor, up to the point where they can meet these higher requirements; and that what is a little too hard for three years is rather too easy for four years.

The Columbia plan, quite generally adopted, is to allow the fourth year in college to count in whole or in part for the first year in the professional schools.

The objections to this plan are that it is not practicable for institutions which have no professional schools, unless they resort to the fiction of non-resident enrollment; and that it tends to the neglect of one or the other of the two connections.

The University of Wisconsin plan is to allow a student to take courses amounting to eighteen hours a week, and attend summer sessions in addition for three years. The objection to this plan is that it is too severe a strain upon the vitality of immature men and women; that, even if accomplished, so much work in so short a time is likely to be of the nature of a cram; and that it would preclude that attitude of leisure and receptivity to intellectual and social influences which is the literal meaning of school and half the worth of education.

The recently adopted Amherst plan is the combination of two additional courses in the preparatory school with six college courses throughout the year, in which one

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must maintain an average standing of C plus. This plan guards against superficiality, but in a less degree is open to the objections that have been urged against the single principles of which it is a combination.

Finally, there is the reduction of the present requirement of college work by one-fourth. This no one is found to advocate, educators having the same aversion to diminishing the value of their degrees that imperialists have to hauling down the flag.

I venture to propose a plan which will maintain the educational value of the degree at its present minimum; throw no additional burden on the secondary schools; make no encroachment on the professional schools; subject no student to excessive strain; and guard effectively against superficiality and social narrowness. The substance of the plan is to combine quality with quantity as a basis for granting the Bachelor's degree. This is done to a slight extent in the Harvard and Amherst plans. I propose to make quality a definite, systematic, and considerable factor in the requirement for the degree.

The present requirement for the Bachelor's degree, stated in hours of work for a year, is usually 60. At Amherst it is 56, or, with two credits on entrance, 54. At Harvard, where so much work is thrown back into the secondary school, it is 51 or 52½, according to the rank attained in Freshman English. Let us make the requirement for the degree 54 units, each unit representing an hour's work for a year, for which a student receives a rank of at least D. If this is a slight reduction, amounting to six hours or two courses, it no more than offsets the increase in requirements for admission generally made about ten years ago, and the improvement in the preparation with which students come, thus leaving the total requirements for the degree in school and college as high as they were ten years ago; 54 hours, or 4½ courses a year, is a fair amount of work to require of students whose minds work slowly, or who are poorly prepared, or who are absorbed in athletic, social, and administrative undergraduate interests. It is too much to do well, consistently with a reasonable amount of participation in college life, in three years. The man who takes the degree in three years should do less work than that, but should do well what he does. College work is usually ranked as follows: A is excellent; B is good; C is fair; D is poor but passable; E is bad and receives no recognition. Hitherto, with trifling exceptions, distinctions between A, B, C, and D have not entered into the award of the degree, but have simply been reported to parents and represented on the Commencement programme. I propose to make the quality which these distinctions represent a co-ordinate factor with mere quantity of courses taken in the basis on which the degree is conferred.

Let an hour in a course for which a student receives D, or a D hour, count 1 towards the requisite 54 units; a C hour, 1.1; a B hour, 1.2; an A hour, 1.25. No man should be allowed to get his degree in three years on D hours only. Neither may he take it on a majority of Ds and a few Cs; for that also would represent too many courses poorly done. If, however, he can get enough credit on his courses to attain the requisite 54 units in 51 hours or less, that is, in 17 three-hour courses or less, he may graduate in three years. Obviously, on the rating proposed above there are an almost infinite number of combinations by which this may be done. I give three examples: 26 D hours, 20 C hours, and 5 B hours would give the student his 54 units in 51 hours, or 17 three-hour courses. This would be an example of the way in which the plodding but not brilliant student, by hard work for two years in which he carries six courses, and an average amount of work for the third year, would get his degree in three years.

A brighter student, a man of average ability and rather more than average application, would take his degree in three years on something like 8 D hours, 20 C hours, and 20 B hours—48 hours in all, or 16 three-hour courses; six such courses one year and five the other two. Half an average class, if they were willing to work for it, might take the degree in this way. The work is not excessive in amount, except for a single year.

The ten per cent. of brilliant men who are also industrious would take their degree by a combination like 3 C hours, 30 B hours, and 12 A hours, or 45 in all, five courses a year for each of the three

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years. They do no more work each year than they are doing under the present four-year plan; but they get the credit they deserve for doing it extremely well, in the form of a substantial reduction in the quantity of work required for the degree. They have just as much time as anybody for athletics, society, and the management of college enterprises. They can be high scholars, and have this very substantial recognition and reward of high scholarship, without being forced to become "grinds" in consequence.

This plan puts a natural instead of an artificial premium on high scholarship, and transfers the surplus value of a good scholar's degree over a poor scholar's degree into the ground on which the degree is granted. It helps the able and industrious, and at the same time leaves the dull and the idle precisely where they are. It does not injure the poor scholar by giving him too little to do, nor the good scholar by giving him too much to do. It effects the transition from a four to a possible three years' course without a sudden revolution or sudden reduction of revenue. It lifts class standing from a matter of caste, due to the revolutions of the heavenly bodies, to a reward for effective exercise of the convolutions of the brain. It will increase enormously the strenuousness of the intellectual life of a college, and make the student, by the thoroughness of his college work, a sharer with his parents in the burden of securing his degree. Incidentally this increased attention to college work, resulting from the knowledge that the quality of each hour of work counts in the time and money cost of his degree, will bring the improved moral tone which always accompanies the recognition of definite and constant responsibility.

If the small college is content to be a place where men between nineteen and twenty-three are required merely to get a pass mark on a moderate amount of work, which represents about one-third of their available mental energy, and to spend the other two-thirds either in athletics, society, holding undergraduate offices, or study, according as they please, and where their status at any given time is determined mainly by the periodic revolutions of the heavenly bodies, it will see its domain gradually absorbed by the secondary school on the one hand, and the university on the other. Make it a place where permanent professors, not temporary tutors, meet the student in consecutive courses in each great department, even though all departments be not represented; make it a place where good work gets just as real a premium for its quality as passable work gets for its quantity; make it a place where high moral details are supported by strenuous mental standards; make it a place for the three years between eighteen and twenty-one in an atmosphere as individual and personal as the home, yet as wide and free as the world, and the small college will hold its place in the crush and competition to which it will be subjected in the inevitable educational reconstruction.

At the Bowdoin Centennial the witty Chief Justice of Maine, John A. Peters, a Yale graduate, described the difference between a large and a small college by saying that in the large university the student goes through more college, but in the small college more college goes through the student. The difference is not merely one of numbers. A small college, to justify the praise bestowed upon it, must be one in which practically all the instruction is given by permanent professors, who meet the students in the same department year after year, and stamp the impress of their personality and point of view upon them. Bowdoin College, for example, does all its teaching by permanent professors, with the exception of elementary work in languages, for which two instructors are employed. These two instructors, however, are married men, established in the community, on three-year appointments; have had five years' experience in teaching, and receive salaries of twelve hundred dollars. If colleges which turn over half their work to inexperienced young men on year appointments, on salaries of from two to ten hundred dollars, fail to produce the training claimed for small colleges, it is not because they are small in the number of their students, but because, in their haste to multiply courses and expand, they have lost what is characteristic of the small college without getting the distinctive advantages of the great university. The great university will always offer more courses, more professors, and

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professors of greater scholarship and reputation than the small college. It will always be a better place for a man who has reached the maturity of mind and character which ought to be represented by the age of twenty-one or twenty-two. The small college which is true to its traditions, which teaches truth through the continuous influence of a few men of powerful personality and pedagogical skill; which makes every student justify his mental, moral, and social conduct in a community in which everybody knows him thoroughly and judges him impartially, and sees through his motives and traits as clearly as if his body were transparent glass; the small college which is at once small, solid, genuine, and individual, is and always will be the best place for ninety-five out of every hundred young men who leave home for the first time to gain that part of their education which falls between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one. The fourth year unquestionably can be better spent elsewhere. Bowdoin College, with only 254 students last year, had twenty-nine of its recent graduates in Harvard University alone. With a possible three years' course, a still larger proportion of the graduates of the small college will resort to the universities for a year or more of study. The college which gives a limited number of students the personal attention of one another, and the individual impress of a chosen few permanent, well-paid professors for three years, will always be the best place for the average young man; and, whatever may be the fate of the colleges which try to grow suddenly large by multiplying students, courses, and underpaid young instructors, the small college which is content to do the great work which a small college can do best, by virtue of its inherent fitness to a permanent educational need, will deservedly survive.

II.—The Future of the Detached College

By George Harris, LL.D.

President of Amherst College

IN the last twenty-five years there has been a large increase in the number of young men in college. Not only those who are destined for the learned professions, but many who are going into business, spend four years at college. One gets a certain standing in society by graduating from a college. It is matter of course that the sons of well-to-do people go to college. Whether there will be more educated men than can find places suitable to their abilities and training is a question not yet discussed in America. The percentage of college men to the population is still very small, and is likely to be greater rather than less.

There is a strong preference for the Eastern colleges. Eastward the star of education takes its way. The Western colleges have a local, the Eastern a national, constituency. For that reason I consider the New England colleges only, and also because I know more about them than I know about the small colleges and the new universities of the West.

Harvard College and Yale College are colleges in universities. Amherst, Bowdoin, Dartmouth, Williams, and seven or eight other colleges are not in universities. Some of them have a graduate or a professional school, but it is merely an adjunct, and all of them are spoken of as colleges, or small colleges, although some of them have as many students as Yale or Harvard had thirty years ago.

The question of the future of the small college is the question where all the students are going, to the college or to the the university, or, more precisely, whether the universities are to grow at the expense of the colleges. At present the number of men in the detached colleges of New England, upwards of three thousand, is about the same as the number in the two universities. Will the proportion continue the same, or will it change?

Every college has a natural constituency which it will retain. As a rule, the son of an alumnus goes to his father's college. A younger brother goes to the college of his older brother. Alumni direct students to their own college because they wish their Alma Mater to be strong and flourishing. The remainder, a large

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half of all students, are determined by various reasons in their choice of a college.

The strongest reason for choosing Yale or Harvard is prestige—the name of it. There is no doubt that many enter those universities so as to be able to say they are Harvard men or Yale men. So great is the charm and glory of the name that, with many, ambition terminates in being a student and graduate of one of those universities. Whether the intellectual training is better or worse than in a small college is a question not even asked. Whether one is fitted for success or not is a question not raised. Whether more or fewer friendships will be formed is a question not considered. All that creates the fame of Harvard is appropriated by the obscurest undergraduate when he is asked to name his college. That this consideration is almost wholly in favor of the two universities, and that it is a potent consideration, must be conceded by the small colleges.

Another reason is educational. Strange as it may seem, this reason is less weighty than prestige, yet it has weight, and will have increasing weight, to the advantage, on the whole, of the small college. The difference in this respect is not of subject but of method. The programme of the university presents two hundred subjects or courses, the programme of the college fifty subjects; therefore, on the face of it, there is four times as much educational opportunity at the university as at the college. But the advantage is more apparent than real. The range of choice is wider, but in four years a student can take only a tenth of the courses, since it is estimated that to take all the courses at Harvard one must stay there forty years. Moreover, the small college offers courses in the same subjects—ancient and modern languages, literature, history, philosophy, mathematics, science, economics—which furnish the staple of a liberal education. The exceptional student who wishes to specialize in one direction can go further at Harvard than at Bowdoin or Dartmouth; the average student can and will follow the same lines in college or university. The educational difference, I say, is in method, not in subject; and here, for average students, the advantage is with the small college. The method of the university is the lecture method; the method of the college is the recitation method, requiring daily work. At Yale, during the first year, students are in divisions, and recite, and in some subjects this continues during the second year; afterwards the work is through lectures, for the most part. At Harvard, where election is free from the outset, there is, in some courses, the daily task, but chiefly the method is by lecture. With this method goes little or much work, as the student likes. The final examinations twice a year are the working period—days and nights of cramming. This is a good method in some subjects and for some students, but there is a line of least resistance, easy and easily found.

The method of the small college carries a requirement of daily work in nearly all courses. This is not merely learning a lesson from a book and reciting it. There are essays to be written, subjects to be worked up from the sources, original problems to be solved, laboratory experiments to be performed, collateral reading to be done, but at every exercise students must recite and report. In some courses there are lectures chiefly, in every subject some lectures. Yet the method, on the part of the student, is partly productive, not wholly receptive. Measuring fractionally, in the rough, it may be said that in the university the method is three parts lecture to one part recitation, in the college three parts recitation to one part lecture. For lads from eighteen to twenty-two years of age can there be any doubt which is the better method?

A further advantage of recitation and report is a training in public speaking. A student must frequently stand on his feet and express himself before an audience. In this connection it may be added that the small college requires public speaking in declamation and debates, as the university does not. There is a time to be silent, indeed, but also there is a time to speak, and an educated man should have the ability to speak. It is pretty well understood now that the place for study, that is, the place where study is required, is the small college; that in the university the student may, in the college he must, study; that if a boy loafs four years, except eight cramming periods, the label of a university will do him very little

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good. There are a great many sensible people in this country who prefer to send their sons to a college where they must study. Educationally, also, the small college has an advantage in the personal relation of student with teacher, which at Amherst, and I presume at other colleges, is a relation of close friendship. Furthermore, the faculties of small colleges compare favorably in point of scholarship, ability, and teaching power with the faculties of universities, and have a smaller proportion of young instructors.

Another reason in favor of the small college may be called social. In the small college every student has more or less acquaintance with all the members of his own class, and, through the fraternities, with members of other classes. The isolated man is a rare exception. A great value of college life is the association of students with one another. Some gain it in the university; all gain it in the college.

These two reasons, the educational and the social, will so far outweigh the prestige of the university name as to make it certain that the college will hold its own, or even gain, in numbers; and not merely in numbers, but also in students of character and ability.

The service of the college is in exalting a liberal education. The college stands for the production of cultivated men. Men of breadth and culture are wanted in the professions and in business. It is well that the college is the dominant element in the university. It is well that the detached college of liberal arts exists and flourishes.

To maintain itself the college must remain a college of liberal arts. Adaptation there must be. Students shall elect their studies, provided all are liberalizing studies. There should be provision for shortening the time to three or three and a half years, and this is easily accomplished when studies are elective. The college should not multiply meaningless degrees. Bachelor of Arts is the appropriate degree for a graduate of a college of liberal arts. For this the requirements of one ancient language and one modern language may well be made, and beyond that a given number of liberal courses elected by the student.

A very good order is the small college for a liberal education, the university for graduate and professional study.

My conclusion is that the small college has a future, and a great future.

When the University Trembled

By Arthur Chapman

WHEN the President of Argo University told the reporters for the morning papers that, unless somebody advanced twenty thousand dollars in the next twenty-four hours, the mortgage on the main buildings would be foreclosed, people shook their heads and said what they were in duty bound to say in such a case.

Everybody liked President Buckwalter. He was not only a mentally well-poised sort of chap, with some pleasing ideas about hammering sense into young men, but he exhaled the kind of unconscious brotherly love that would make even a theater usher unbend and look pleasant. The world says nice things about the fellow who says nice things about the world, and President Buckwalter was such an outspoken believer in the goodness of mankind that he basked comfortably in his own sunshine. These things, however, did not alter a monumentally ridiculous proposition as a whole. There was no excuse for the existence of Argo University, so the people said who figured that a boy in school after thirteen years was simply "eating his head off." In the first place, it couldn't even be rated in the fresh-water class, for it was out among a lot of cactus and sage-brush, without so much as an irrigation ditch in sight, and, on a reasonably warm day in summer, a man making his way across the treeless grounds hardly dared put out his tongue for fear it would crack open.

To be sure, the professors who had cast their individual lots with the institution were loyal to the extent of struggling along with low salaries and consequent shabby overcoats, and there was no doubting their earnestness and their abiding

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faith in the ultimate greatness of the University. One of them, too, had written a book on sociology or something of that sort, which had brought him an offer of a chair in a big Eastern university that figured in the Associated Press football reports. Then the students were intensely enthusiastic, even if they did not have so much as a glee club. Some of them punched cows on the range during vacation, and several did odd jobs of laboratory work for the chemists in the employ of the big smelters. Others worked in the mines, at union wages, long enough to give them the wherewithal for a term membership in a student "prune-club," and one or two of the young women graduates had gone into politics and had been elected to the State Legislature. But all this did not alter the fact that Argo University had come face to face with ruin, after a plucky struggle to keep on the map, and President Buckwalter received twenty-three "I-told-you-so" letters in the afternoon's mail following the interview in the newspapers. The twenty-fourth letter, however, did not go into the waste-basket. It was a curt note informing President Buckwalter that a check had been drawn by the undersigned and was ready to be devoted to relieving the distressed financial condition of Argo University. There was no provision about a like sum being raised in a certain time. The gift was unconditional, save that the donor's name was to be kept secret. The note was signed by one of the city's millionaires—a man of whom a reporter had once said: "In the matter of closeness, Senator Edgren would make the bark on a tree look like a Mother Hubbard wrapper."

When President Buckwalter strode into Edgren & Co.'s office he found the harsh lines of the Senator's face softened into something like amiable tracings, owing to the cajolery of a good cigar. It was a condition just bordering on good nature, but no man had ever seen the distinguished capitalist step quite across the line.

"Well, Buckwalter," he growled, as the professor sunk into the visitor's chair, where the light was always in a man's eyes, "how is your institution for teaching intellectual fancy-work?"

"Much better than before I received your kind letter," began the professor, but the Senator cut him short with another growl.

"Don't start anything of that sort. Cut it all out. You know I don't believe in this university business. It makes a complicated fool of a young fellow who might have been just a natural, simple sort of a fool to begin with. But I've had some of your long-haired cattle in my mines and smelters and on some of my stock ranches, and I believe you're pounding better ideas into 'em than most of those hifaluters are doing in the East. Then you've got a Western shebang, and there's the question of patriotism. The West's made me what I am, and I can't go back on any of her institutions that are more'n half-baked. That's what brought you this check, I guess—set it down as sentiment."

The professor took a long blue slip of paper in his trembling fingers. With an effort he managed to reduce the figures to twenty thousand dollars, though his eyes at first extended the ciphers into a dancing, interminable row.

"It's a fine thing—a generous thing!" exclaimed the professor, when he had mastered the emotions that seemed to clutch at his throat. "I wish that you would let me announce the name of the man who has saved the University."

"No, no—you'll be naming a hall, or a window, or a fence-post for me next. Keep it dark. It's easy money, anyway. I picked it up and ten thousand more in a few minutes on the board yesterday. I don't mind telling you how it was done—it was in that little raid on Horseshoe-Agnes."

The professor, who had risen at the deepening note in the Senator's growl, dimly remembered that he had read of a sensational break in Horseshoe-Agnes mining stock. There had been a long period of depression, owing to the reported playing out of the main vein, and the decline had finally culminated in a frantic scramble for cover on the part of stockholders when Senator Edgren and a few other bears had made a determined raid on the floor of the exchange. Suddenly it came to the professor that he had heard the name of the Horseshoe-Agnes in connection with other matters, and he sat down again, with a numb sensation in his limbs.

"The Horseshoe-Agnes, did you say, Senator? That's the mine which the Seatons floated, isn't it?"

"Yes; and there's no reason why the

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stock should be where it is to-day, even though the lead is lost. The company has plenty of good acreage that has never been touched. Stockholders are a lot of sheep when it comes to a scare, however, and young Seaton couldn't hold 'em together when a few of us insiders sold short. Things went to the bottom, and, from what I hear, young Seaton may go too."

"That is how I got the check, is it?" asked the professor.

The Senator nodded, and walked to the window, where he looked down on the busy street. The professor gazed weakly at the broad back of the famous financier. The iron-gray hair, cut smoothly, rounded at the bottom, showed a sickle edge of bull neck. The strong, knotted hands, clasped at the man's back, told eloquently of his long fight as a poor prospector before he quit counting all his gold in one palm. Even the back of such a man was discouraging to a non-belligerent nature, but the professor pulled himself together manfully.

"Senator Edgren, I return your check," he said, quietly.

The Senator gave a snort as he wheeled about.

"What's that?" he asked, the space between his brows narrowing perceptibly.

Many a clerk had changed his mind about asking for a raise in salary at hearing those two words, spoken in that particular tone, but the professor's face cleared as he laid the check on the desk.

"If you made that money in such a way as you have described, I cannot take it," Senator," he said. "Mr. Seaton, who is principal owner of the mine, is the holder of the mortgage on the university. He has always been more than generous, and I know that this foreclosure has been forced because this sudden break in Horseshoe-Agnes has straitened him financially."

"But if you take up the mortgage you'll be doing him a greater benefit than if you let him foreclose, besides saving the University," said the Senator. He seldom argued, but certain aspects of this case were beginning to interest him.

The professor's hand fluttered a moment at his throat before he spoke. The words "saving the University" had struck home. A picture flashed across his vision—the picture of his plans of a lifetime wrecked almost in an instant. He had only to pick up that slip of blue paper once more and the University would be given another chance. The Senator looked at him with something of curiosity in his eyes. Perhaps he understood a little of the struggle that was going on, for he considerately said nothing. Finally the professor backed two or three steps away from the hypnotizing influence of the blue check.

"It's something more than saving the University, Senator," he said. His voice was quite steady now. "It is a simple question of right or wrong. I know that, according to business ethics, I should take that check without questioning how the money was made. Perhaps if I were running a bank, or—or a saloon, it might be different. But the foundation of a university must be broader than that. Manifestly it would not be right for me to pay young Mr. Seaton in money that had been wrung from him in a—well, to put it frankly, in a questionable deal on the mining stock exchange."

A wave of purple surged into the Senator's face.

"What do you call a questionable deal?" he shouted. "You fellows who split hairs for a living generally argue like children. Why, every dollar that you handle, or that I handle, or that has gone into your university fund, has represented some disreputable deal for each day of its existence, accordin' to what you preach. I've taken most of my money right from the ground, where God put it in the solid rock, and I've taken a good deal from my fellowmen in the course of business, and I want to tell you that I consider that check to be as clean as the brightest bar of gold that ever went from my smelter to the mint. It was won in a game in which every man had his eyes open. We all knew that it was win or lose when we went on the floor of the exchange to drive the last nail in the Horseshoe-Agnes. I won and young Seaton lost, and yet you say it was a questionable deal. You couldn't make young Seaton believe that."

"Probably not," said the professor. He was sure of himself now, and spoke as clearly as if at chapel. "But you say that you think the Horseshoe-Agnes is a good property, yet you went in deliberately and hammered the stock down, as I believe

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you call it. You did your utmost to create the impression that the mine was worthless, and, from all appearances, you succeeded. On your own statement I cannot take the check. Perhaps our standards of propriety are wide apart, but I know where my sense of right begins and where it leaves off, and I'll not go over the line, even if the University is wrecked to-morrow and I am carried down with it."

The Senator tore the check and flung the pieces in his waste-basket. To express his feelings he fell back on his vocabulary of the old prospecting days. He ran the gamut of his most fluent curses forward and back, and then he began in the middle and played it toward both ends. When he had quite finished, he looked at the professor, but no protest came. The professor's gaze was fastened on the window, but he saw nothing of the hurrying throng below the great office building, and he had heard not a word of the Senator's tirade. He saw the University in ruins, and in his head was clashing one refrain:

"Going, going, gone!"

Something in the pathetic droop to the man's shoulders put a new note in the Senator's voice.

"Think it over, Buckwalter," he said, "and I'll write out a new check. Don't let your foolish conscience wreck your life. Where'd I be to-day if I'd weighed everything to a hair?"

"It's very kind of you, Senator," murmured the professor, "but I can't. It's all too plain to be disregarded. There's no misreading the signs."

And he walked out steadily enough, as many a man has walked among the ruins of his hopes.

. . . . .

But when the President of Argo University received a letter from young Seaton the next day, it was not the looked-for notice of foreclosure. It told, in a somewhat disconnected way, how the superintendent of the Horseshoe-Agnes had put a shot in the deserted twelfth level of the mine, where nobody had thought of looking for ore, and had opened a vein of sylvanite that would make any six other veins in the camp look like a knife-blade. In consequence, Horseshoe-Agnes stock had simply gone skyward when the exchange opened. At the time Seaton's note was scrawled, the stock was twenty points higher than on the day of the big bear raid, and still climbing, and, provided the faculty had no objections, the holder of the mortgage wished to make a present of that paper, duly canceled, to his Alma Mater.

"It is good to live," said the professor, as he raised his streaming face from his arms, "but I hope I'll never be put to such a test again. Ugh! I could fairly hear my conscience creak."

The Summer School of the South

From a Correspondent

PRESIDENT G. STANLEY HALL pronounces it the "biggest summer school in the world," and he knows. "In numbers and interest it has never been surpassed. The character of the work done is of the best. The greatest impression made upon me, next to the number, is the social quality of the students.

President Hall is one of twenty-five college presidents who are in attendance, as pupils or lecturers, and there are 150 college professors, 75 school superintendents, and nearly 2,000 teachers, of whom fully two-thirds are themselves college graduates. The audience was a revelation, to any man who faced it, that the South has attained its majority in matters educational and literary. There was a discrimination that made itself felt and tested the mettle of the ablest educators. A great name was not enough to excite reverence, nor was any authority too high for criticism. The South has for a long time been open to impression. It has been feeling all along that it knew a few things. And now it knows that it knows. There is a saving common-sense that has been born of hardship and poverty that has redeemed the average Southern teacher from that bondage to theory and method that has been elsewhere the curse of the profession.

There have been summer schools in the

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South before on a small scale. One at Chapel Hill, North Carolina, the seat of the State University, was inaugurated by President Alderman, and has been a great source of needed instruction to the teachers of the State. But President Charles W. Dabney, of the University of Tennessee, decided to plan more boldly, and to secure the men who are at the head of their respective departments, and he himself was surprised at the response. The teachers knew what they wanted and recognized that for the first time they could satisfy their needs at a Southern summer school, and so they crowded into Knoxville, 1,905 having enrolled themselves for the full course, as we write, and the number is steadily climbing. It will probably pass the two-thousand mark.

Knoxville turned out to be an ideal place for such a gathering; it is centrally located and the approach to the city is a delightful one from any point of the compass. The trip by way of Round Knob and Asheville is one of which the traveler never wearies; the steady climb up the Blue Ridge, with rearward vistas opening out for fifty miles; the plunge through the tunnel, followed by the welcome view of of the Asheville Plateau, circled by mountains, and then the descent of the French Broad through a gorge of the Great Smokies into the rolling country of East Tennessee. Knoxville is also beautiful for situation, and the University Hill is a noble site, overlooking the Tennessee River on one side, the city on another, and with far-sweeping views toward the North Carolina Mountains. When it was found that the accommodations for the eight hundred visitors who were at first expected would be inadequate, the people of the city willingly opened their homes to the teachers, the University dormitories being reserved for the women, and several hundred being thus entertained on "The Hill." The departments of chemistry, physics, and of the industrial arts are admirably equipped, for a Southern institution, and several of the University professors remained to teach in the summer school. It was noted with pleasure that the tasks of construction, electrical wiring, and all the mechanical additions found necessary were done by the University students. A temporary "tabernacle" was erected for the main auditorium, seating 2,000 people, and the lecture-rooms and chapel of the University were all put to use for the different classes at work. And the eagerness to learn and the capacity for work were both noticeable. Dr. Dabney had to plan an excursion, now and then, to keep the pupils from breaking down. The fee for the full course of six weeks, including all the lectures and experiments one might wish to attend, was only five dollars. It was understood, and with grateful appreciation, that the Southern Education Board had agreed to meet a deficiency of a few thousand dollars, money which, we believe, could hardly be more wisely expended than in the opportunity thus afforded the teachers of the South.

Among the lecturers giving extended courses we may mention President Hall of Clark University, President Alderman of Tulane, President Thompkins of the Chicago Normal College, Messrs. Gregory of Jersey City, Hughes of Toronto, Walter H. Page of North Carolina and New York, Alphonso Smith, lately of the University of Louisiana and now a most welcome addition to the University of North Carolina, Apgar, "the bug-man," from Trenton, besides drawing and music teachers, instructors in various handicrafts, and the President and the professors in the University. Dr. Dabney and his associates had evidently gauged all the various departments of study that would be required, and to an outsider the variety was bewildering.

We confess to a greater interest in the auditors than in the lecturers, instructive and uplifting as some of them were. In these hundreds of earnest teachers is the hope and the promise of the South. They have set their faces toward the morning. And yet the best traditions of the Old South are theirs by inheritance. One of the blessings of defeat and of the general impoverishment of the South is the sending forth from homes of refinement and culture and gentle breeding, the women who are molding the character of the next generation, whether it comes from such homes or not. Teaching is greater than pedagogy, and the influences that make for refinement and culture cannot always be imparted after the days of youthful impressions have been passed. It is a liberal education to be taught by some of

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these Southern women, whether one learns the things they profess to teach or not. President Hall was right. The advantage is inestimable.

Another noteworthy feature of this school was the attention paid to the industrial and mechanical arts. This indicates the demand for them that is beginning to be made in the public schools. The Tennessee Experiment Station was also an object of great interest, with its model farm and dairy herd. This feature is more deeply significant to a native Southerner than to a Northerner. The South is coming into its inheritance in more ways than one.

It was the expected thing when the resolution was unanimously passed, "Conscious of our dependence upon the God of our fathers, and believing that the highest and truest civilization can be attained only by following the precepts of the great teacher, Jesus Christ, we favor the recognition of the Bible in our public schools."

Religion is the basis of Southern civilization. Hence it was felt that Dr. Hall had struck a false note in decrying theology, which is of course but the science of religion. And it was felt that he was on very delicate ground in dealing with the mysteries of regeneration and conversion as phenomena of adolescence, and in inveighing against "early piety." The wind bloweth where it listeth. At the same time his auditors were far more in accord with Dr. Hall in his opposition to the work of the children's evangelists than with Professor Hamill of the International Sunday-school Committee, who was one of the lecturers on the Sunday-school.

And no one could fail to understand the candor with which the faults and failings of the profession were recognized. Here high authority was accepted rather than the methods of mediocrity. Such sallies as those of Dr. Hall, "I suspect the learning of anybody who talks much about methods," "Normal teachers are the scribes and Pharisees of education," or one by President Thompkins, a man of great force and originality, "The good Lord has made the child so that it can survive the outrages of the school-room," were received with rapturous applause. It seemed again to an outsider that the teachers had not been led astray by the fads of education and were glad to receive the corroboration of their own opinions as to the folly of many of the fads.

We shall not soon forget the thrill of it all—this gathering of two thousand teachers in a Southern city, of the best blood of the South, having already utilized the best opportunities afforded in the South, eagerly grasping the privilege of remedying the defects of training which they felt, yet possessing rare discrimination and the ability to appreciate what the very best of their profession could give them, and then going to their little school-houses in the towns and in the woods, to give out what they have learned and to stimulate, each her own neighborhood, to new educational enterprise. Here is the secret of the great educational revival in the Southern States. Let the larger names be as conspicuous as they will, here is the real source of the new movement, the common-school teachers.

There were a thousand or more of them at the summer school at Charlottesville, Virginia. Knoxville is getting ready for five thousand next summer.

A. J. McK.

Andrea del Sarto to Lucrezia

By Robert Haven Schauffler

Mar not thy spirit's lovely calm with care for my heart's agony,
For this is now my only joy—the joy of suffering for thee;
Nor mourn the shattered casket of my genius, 'though from out it flow
Spikenard to lave thy perfect feet—for the good God ordained it so.

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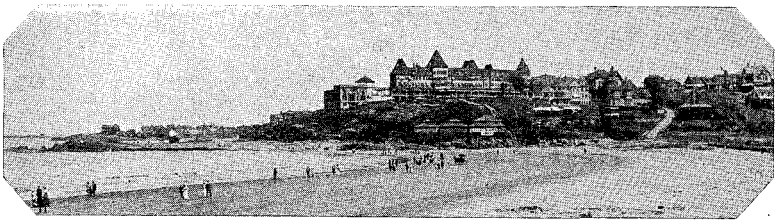

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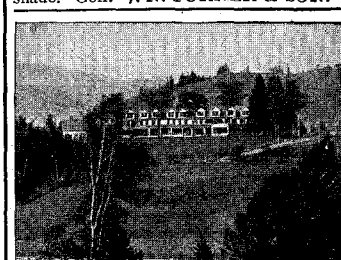

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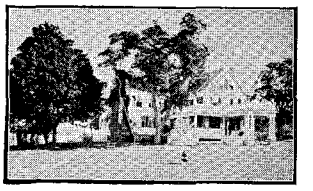

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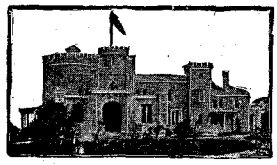

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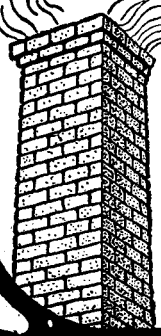

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